GOVERNMENT OF BENGAL.] This government was rich, flouriſhing, and populous, before the late uſurpations in Indoſtan. It is finely watered by the Ganges and Burrampooter with their numerous navigable channels, and the ſeveral navigable rivers they receive; it is fertilized by their periodical inundations; and by its natural ſituation is well ſecured againſt foreign enemies. But for a more particular deſcription of this province, we refer our readers to the account we have already given of it.

GOVERNMENT OF MADRAS.] The great defects of this government, are not only the wants of connection between its parts, which are ſcattered along an extenſive coaſt, and ſeparated from each other by ſtates frequently hoſtile, but being totally devoid of good harbours. Hopes, however, have been entertained of removing this laſt defect, by removing the bar at the mouth of that branch of the Caveri called Coleroon, which falls into the ſea at Devicotta. The capital and ſeat of government is MADRAS in the Jaghire, called alſo Fort St. George. It is ill ſituated, without a harbour, and badly fortified, yet contains upwards of 200,000 inhabitants.—Fort St. DAVID, in the territory of Cuddalore, is rich, flouriſhing, and contains 60,000 inhabitants.—MASULIPATAM, in the northern Circars, at one of the mouths of the Kiſtna, was formerly the moſt flouriſhing and commercial city on this coaſt, and though much declined, is ſtill conſiderable.

The northern Circars, which are denominated from the towns of Cicacole, Rajamundry, Elore, and Condapily, are defended inland by a ſtrong barrier of mountains and extenſive foreſts, beyond which the country is totally unknown for a conſiderable ſpace.

GOVERNMENT OF BOMBAY.] This government is watered by the Tapee and Nerbudda. Its capital and ſeat of government is BOMBAY, in a ſmall iſland, and an unhealthy ſituation, but it is well fortified, and has a fine harbour.—SURAT on the Tapee, which forms an indifferent port, is one of the moſt rich and commercial cities in Indoſtan.—TELLICHERRY, on the Malabar coaſt, is dependent on Bombay.

ALLIES OF THE BRITISH.

Dominions of the nabob of Oude,	Fyzabad. Lucknow.
Dominions of the nabob of Arcot, comprehending the eaſtern part only of the ancient Carnatic.	Arcot on the Paliar is the capital, though the nabob uſually reſides at Madras. Gingee, the ſtrongeſt Indian fortreſs in the Carnatic. Tritchinopoly near the Caveri, well fortified in the Indian manner, was rich and populous, containing near 400,000 inhabitants, now almoſt ruined by the numerous ſieges it has ſuſtained. Seringham Pagoda, in an iſland of the Caveri, is famous throughout Indoſtan for its ſanctity, and has no leſs than 40,000 prieſts, who conſtantly reſide here in voluptuous indolence. Chandegeri, the ancient capital of the empire of Narzzingua, formerly rich, powerful, and populous; near it is the famous pagoda of Tripetti, the Loretto of Indoſtan. The offerings of the numerous pilgrims who reſort hither, bring in an immenſe revenue. Tanjore, Madura, and Tinivelly, are the capitals of ſmall ſtates of the ſame name, which, with Marawar, are dependent on the nabob of Arcot.

Territory of Futty Sing Guicker in the soubah of Guzerat.	Amedabad. Cambay.
Territory of the rajah of Ghod,	Gwalior, a celebrated fortress.

MAHRATTA STATES, in alliance with the BRITISH, and their TRIBUTARIES.

This extensive country is divided among a number of chiefs or princes, who have one common head, called the Paishwa or Nana; to whom, however, their obedience is merely nominal, as they often go to war against each other, and are seldom confederated, except for mutual defence.

Southern Poonah Mahrattas, or the territories of Paishwa, are naturally strong, being intersected by the various branches of the Gautus.	Satara, the nominal capital of the Mahratta states: the Paishwa, at present, resides at Poonah. Aurungabad, Amednagur, and Visiapour, are in his territories.

The Concan, or tract between the Gauts and the sea, is sometimes called the Pirate coast, as it was subject to the celebrated pirate Angria, and his successors, whose capital was the strong fortress of Gheria, taken by the English and Mahrattas in 1755: by the acquisition of this coast the Mahrattas have become a maritime power.

By the treaty of peace, Tippoo Sultan ceded to the Mahrattas:

	Koonteary pagodas.
In the Dooab, being the circar of Bancapoor, with part of Moodgul, &c. affording a revenue of -	13,06,666
In Gooty, the district of Sundoor, - - -	10,000
	13,16,666

TERRITORIES of the NIZAM, an ally to the BRITISH.

The possessions of the Nizam or Soubah of the Deccan (a younger son of the famous Nizam-al-Muluck) comprise the province of Golconda, that is the ancient province of Tellingana, or Tilling, situated between the lower parts of the Kistna and Godavery rivers, and the principal part of Dowlatabad; together with the western part of Berar, subject to a tribute of a chout, or fourth part of its net revenue to the Berar Mahratta. The Nizam has the Paishwa, or Poonah Mahratta on the west and north-west; the Berar Mahratta on the north; the northern circars on the east; and the Carnatic, and Tippoo Sultan, on the south. I am not perfectly clear, says Major Rennell, in my idea of his western boundary, which, during his wars with the Mahrattas, was subject to continual fluctuation; but I understand generally, that it extends more than 40 miles beyond the city of Aurungabad, westwards, and comes within 80 miles of the city of Poonah. His capital is Hydrabad, or Bagnagur, situated on the Moussi river, near the famous fortress of Golconda.

The districts of Adoni and Rachore, which were in the hands of Bazalet Jung (brother to the Nizam) during his life-time, are now in the hands of the Nizam. The Sourapour, or Sollapoor rajah on the west of the Beemah river, together with some other rajahs, are his tributaries.

The Guntoor circar alſo belongs to him. Probably, ſays the major, theſe dominions, including his tributaries and feudatories, are no leſs than 430 miles in length, from NW. to SE. by 300 wide.

To the above, we have now to add thoſe which Tippoo Sultan ceded to him in the treaty of peace, ſigned, March 18, 1792. viz.

	Koonteary pagodas.
Kerpah (or Cuddapah) Cummum, Ganjecotta, and Canoul, affording a revenue of - -	9,71,390
In Gooty - - - - -	51,782
In Adoni (Mooka) - - -	12,162
In the Dooab, being parts of Rachore, and Moodgul - - -	2,81,332
	13,16,666

BERAR MAHRATTAS.

This country is very little known to Europeans.

Nagpour is the capital.

Balaſore has conſiderable trade.

Cuttack, on the Mahanada, an important poſt, which renders this nation a formidable enemy to the Britiſh, as it cuts off the communication between the governments of Bengal and Madras.

NORTHERN POONAH MAHRATTAS.

They are governed at preſent by Sindia, Holkar, and ſome other leſs conſiderable princes.

Ougein, the reſidence of Sindia.
Indoor, the reſidence of Holkar.
Calpy, the reſidence of Gungdar Punt.
Sagur, the reſidence of Ballagee.

TIPPOO SULTAN'S TERRITORIES,

Have been greatly diminiſhed in conſequence of the late treaty of peace, in which he conſented to reſign half his dominions to the Britiſh, the Mahrattas and the Nizam. His remaining dominions are,

Provinces.	Chief Towns
Kingdom of Myſore - -	Seringapatam on the Caveri.
Bednore - - -	Bednore, or Hyder Nugger.
Canara - - -	Mangalore.

Chitteldroog, Harponelly, Roydroog, &c. are the capitals of territories of the ſame name.

Country of the Abdalli. This government, which includes the ſoubah of Cabul, and the neighbouring parts of Perſia, was formed by Abdalla, one of the generals of Thamas Kouli Khan, when on the death of that uſurper, his empire was diſmembered: its capital is Candahar in Perſia.

Country of the Seiks: They are ſaid to conſiſt of a number of ſmall ſtates independent of each other, but united by a federal union.

Country of the Jats or Getes, very little known to Europeans.

Country of Zebeda Cawn, an Afghan Rohilla.

Territory of Agra on the Jumna.

Ferrukabad, or country of the Patan Rohillas, on the Ganges, ſurrounded by the dominions of Oude.

Bundelcund.

Travancore, near Cape Comorin.

P E R S I A.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1300	between	44 and 70 east longitude.	800,000.
Breadth 1100		25 and 44 north latitude.	

Boundaries.] MODERN Persia is bounded by the mountains of Ararat, or Daghistan, which divide it from Circassian Tartary, on the north-west; by the Caspian sea, which divides it from Russia, on the north; by the river Oxus, which divides it from Usbec Tartary, on the north-east; by India, on the east; and by the Indian Ocean, and the gulfs of Persia and Ormus, on the south; and by Arabia and Turkey, on the west.

This kingdom is divided into the following provinces: on the frontiers of India are Chorasan, part of the ancient Hyrcania, including Herat and Esterabad; Sableustan, including the ancient Bactriana and Candahor; and Sigistan, the ancient Drangiana. The southern division contains Makeran, Kerman, the ancient Gedrossia, and Farsistan, the ancient Persia. The south-west division, on the frontiers of Turkey, contains the provinces of Chusistan, the ancient Susiana, and Irac-Agem, the ancient Parthia. The north-west division, lying between the Caspian sea and the frontiers of Turkey in Asia, contains the provinces of Aderbeitzen, the ancient Media: Gangea aud Daghistan, part of the ancient Iberia and Colchis; Ghilan, part of the ancient Hyrcania; Shirvan, and Mazanderan.

Name.] Persia, according to the poets, derived its name from Perseus, the son of Jupiter and Danae. Less fabulous authors supposed it derived from Paras, which signifies a horseman; the Persians, or Parthians, being always celebrated for their skill in horsemanship.

Air.] In so extensive an empire this is very different. Those parts which border upon Caucasus and Daghistan, and the mountains near the Caspian sea, are cold, as lying in the neighbourhood of those mountains which are commonly covered with snow. The air in the midland provinces of Persia is serene, pure, and exhilarating; but in the southern provinces it is hot, and sometimes communicates noxious blasts to the midland parts, which are so often mortal, that the inhabitants fortify their heads with very thick turbans.

Soil, vegetable and animal productions.] These vary like the air. The soil is far from being luxuriant towards Tartary and the Caspian sea, but with cultivation it might produce abundance of corn and fruits. South of Mount Taurus, the fertility of the country in corn, fruits, wine, and the other luxuries of life, is equalled by few countries. It produces wine and oil in plenty, senna, rhubarb, and the finest of drugs. The fruits are delicious, especially their dates, oranges, pastachio-nuts; melons, cucumbers, and garden stuff, not to mention, vast quantities of excellent silk; and the gulf of Bassora formerly furnished great part of Europe and Asia with very fine pearls. Some parts, near Ispahan especially, produce almost all the flowers that are valued in Europe; and from some of them, the roses especially, they extract waters of a salubrious and odorific kind, which form a gainful commodity in trade. In short, the fruits, vegetables, and flowers of Persia, are of a most exalted flavour; and had the natives the art of horticulture to as great perfection as some nations in Europe,

rope, by transplanting, engrafting, and other meliorations, they would add greatly to the natural riches of the country. The Persian assa-fœtida flows from a plant called hiltot, and turns into a gum. Some of it is white, and some black; but the former is so much valued, that the natives make very rich sauces of it, and sometimes eat it as a rarity.

No place in the world produces the necessaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful spot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it is situated, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of every thing necessary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of May, and by the middle of July the harvest is compleated. Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are superior in size and flavour to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are several sorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly so than the rest; one is the large white grape, which is extremely luscious and agreeable to the taste; the small white grape as sweet as sugar; and the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made, which is really delicious, and well deserving of praise; so much so, that people who have drank it for a space of time, seldom care for any other, though at the first taste it is rather unpleasant to an European. It is pressed by the Armenians and Jews, in the months of October and November, and a vast deal is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Persian Gulf, for supply of the Indian market. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Persians call it the fruit of Paradise.

The breed of horses in the province of Fars is at present very indifferent, owing to the ruinous state of the country; but in the province of Dushtistaan, lying to the south-west, it is remarkably good. The sheep are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of the pasturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are also celebrated for the fineness of their fleece; they have tails of an extraordinary size, some of which I have seen weigh (says Mr. Francklin) upwards of thirty pounds; but those which are sold in the markets do not weigh above six or seven. Their oxen are large and strong, but their flesh is seldom eaten by the natives, who confine themselves chiefly to that of sheep and fowls.

Provisions of all kinds are very cheap; and the neighbouring mountains affording an ample supply of snow throughout the year, the meanest artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled without any expence worthy consideration. This snow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is sold in the markets. The price of provisions is regulated in Shirauz with the greatest exactness by the Daroga, or judge of the police, who sets a fixed price upon every article, and no shop-keeper dares to demand more, under the severe penalty of losing his nose and ears; such being the punishment attached to a crime of this nature; by which means the poorest inhabitants are effectually secured from imposition, in so capital a point as the necessaries of life.

MOUNTAINS.] These are Caucasus and Ararat, which are called the mountains of Daghistan; and the vast collection of mountains called Taurus, and their divisions, run through the middle of the country from Natolia to India.

RIVERS.] It has been observed, that no country, of so great an extent, has so few navigable rivers as Persia. The most considerable are those of Kur, anciently Cyrus; and Aras, anciently Araxes, which rise in or near the mountains of Ararat, and, joining their streams, fall into the Caspian sea,

sea. Some small rivulets falling from the mountains water the country; but their streams are so inconsiderable, that few or none of them can be navigated even by boats. The Oxus can scarcely be called a Persian river, though it divides Persia from Usbec Tartary. Persia has the river Indus on the east, and the Euphrates and Tigris on the west.

WATER.] The scarcity of rivers, in Persia, is joined to a scarcity of water; but the defect, where it prevails, is admirably well supplied by means of reservoirs, aqueducts, canals, and other ingenious methods.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Persia contains mines of iron, copper, lead, and above all, turquoise stones, which are found in Chorasan. Sulpher, salt-petre, and antimony, are found in the mountains. Quarries of red, white, and black marble, have also been discovered near Tauris.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVERSIONS.} It is impossible to speak with any certainty concerning the population of a country so little known as that of Persia. If we are to judge by the vast armies in modern as well as in ancient times, raised there, the numbers it contains must be very great. The Persians of both sexes are generally handsome; the men being fond of Georgian and Circassian women. Their complexions towards the south are somewhat swarthy. The men shave their heads, but the young men suffer a lock of hair to grow on each side, and the beard of their chin to reach up to their temples; religious people wear long beards. Men of rank and quality wear very magnificent turbans; many of them costs twenty-five pounds, and few under nine or ten. They have a maxim to keep their heads very warm, so that they never pull off their caps or their turbans out of respect even to the king. Their dress is very simple. Next to their skin they wear calico shirts, over them a vest, which reaches below the knee, girt with a sash, and over that a loose garment somewhat shorter. The materials of their clothes, however, are commonly very expensive, consisting of the richest furs, silks, muslins, cottons, and the like valuable stuffs, richly embroidered with gold and silver. They wear a kind of loose boots on their legs, and slippers on their feet. They are fond of riding and very expensive in their equipages. They wear at all times a dagger in their sash, and linen trowsers. The collars of their shirts and clothes are open; so that their dress upon the whole is far better adapted for the purpose both of health and activity than the long flowing robes of the Turks. The dress of the women is not much different; their wear, as well as that of the men, is very costly; and they are at great pains to heighten their beauty by art, colours, and washes.

The Persians accustom themselves to frequent ablutions, which are the more necessary, as they seldom change their linen. In the morning early they drink coffee, about eleven go to dinner, upon fruits, sweetmeats, and milk. Their chief meal is at night. They eat at their repasts cakes of rice, and others of wheat flower; and as they esteem it an abomination to cut either bread, or any kind of meat after it is dressed, these cakes are made thin, that they may be easily broken with the hand; and their meat, which is generally mutton, or fowls, is so prepared, that they divide it with their fingers. When every thing is set in order before them, they eat fast, and without any ceremony. But it is observed by a late traveller, that when the oldest man in the company speaks, though he be poor, and set at the lower end of the room, they all give a strict attention to his words. They are temperate but use opium, though not in such abundance as the Turks; nor are they very delicate in their entertainments of eating and drinking. They are great masters of ceremony towards their superiors, and so polite, that they accommodate Europeans who visit them with stools, that they may not be forced to sit cross legged. They are so immoderately fond of tobacco, which they ſmoke through a tube fixed in water, ſo as to be cool in the mouth, that when it has been prohibited by their princes, they have been known to leave their country rather than be debarred from that enjoyment. The Perſians are naturally fond of poetry, moral ſentences, and hyperbole. Their long wars, and the national revolutions, have mingled the native Perſians with barbarous nations, and are ſaid to have taught them diſſimulation; but they are ſtill pleaſing and plauſible in their behaviour, and in all ages have been remarkable for hoſpitality.

The Perſians write like the Hebrews, from the right to the left; are neat in their ſeals and materials for writing, and wonderfully expeditious in the art. The number of people employed on their manuſcripts (for no printing is allowed there) is incredible. Their great foible ſeems to be oſtentation in their equipage and dreſſes; nor are they leſs jealous of their women than the Turks and other eaſtern nations. They are fond of muſic, and take a pleaſure in converſing in large companies; but their chief diverſions are thoſe of the field, hunting, hawking, horſemanſhip, and the exerciſe of arms, in all which they are very dextrous. They excel, as their anceſtors the Parthians did, in archery. They are fond of rope-dancers, jugglers, and fighting of wild beaſts; and privately play at games of chance.

There are places in Shirauz (Mr. Francklin obſerves) diſtinguiſhed by the name of Zôor Khâna, the houſe of ſtrength, or exerciſe, to which the Perſians reſort for the ſake of exerciſing themſelves. Theſe houſes conſiſt of one room, with the floor ſunk about two feet below the ſurface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of ſeveral ſmall perforated apertures made in the doom. In the centre is a large ſquare terrace of earth, well beaten down, ſmooth and even; and on each ſide are ſmall alcoves raiſed about two feet above the terrace, where the muſicians and ſpectators are ſeated. When all the competitors are aſſembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately ſtrip themſelves to the waiſt; on which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hands two wooden clubs of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the ſhape of a pear; theſe they reſt upon their ſhoulder, and the muſic ſtriking up, they move them backwards and forwards with great agility, ſtamping with their feet at the ſame time, and ſtraining every nerve, till they produce a very profuſe perſpiration. After continuing this exerciſe about half an hour, upon a ſignal given they all leave off, quit their clubs, and joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briſkly in union with the muſic, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this for ſome time, they commence wreſtling, in which the maſter of the houſe is always the challenger; and being accuſtomed to the exerciſe, generally proves conqueror. The ſpectators pay each a ſhabee in money, equal to three-pence Engliſh, for which they are refreſhed with a calean to ſmoke, and coffee. This mode of exerciſe muſt contribute to health, as well as add ſtrength, vigour, and a manly appearance to the frame. It ſeems to bear ſome reſemblance to the gymnaſtic exerciſes of the ancients.

In attempting to ſay any thing of the character of the modern Perſians (ſays Mr. Francklin) I am ſenſible of the difficulty of the undertaking; yet as during my ſtay in Perſia, from the ſituation I was placed in, by living in a native family, I had an opportunity of ſeeing more of the nature and diſpoſition of the middling ſort of people, and their manners and cuſtoms, than has fallen to the lot of moſt travellers, I am induced to give the few obſervations I made during that period. The Perſians, with reſpect to outward behaviour, are certainly the Pariſians of the Eaſt. Whilſt a rude and inſolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkiſh nation wards foreigners and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilized nations: they are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all strangers, without being guided by those religious prejudices so very prevalent in every other Mahometan nation; they are fond of enquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and in return very readily afford any information in respect to their own country. The practice of hospitality is with them so grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly honoured if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a house, without smoaking a calean, or taking any other refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say that every meal a stranger partakes with them brings a blessing upon the house.

The Persians, in their conversation, use such extravagant and hyperbolical compliments on the most trifling occasions, that it would at first inspire a stranger with an idea, that every inhabitant of the place was willing to lay down his life, shed his blood, or spend his money in your service; and this mode of address (which in fact means nothing) is observed not only by those of a higher rank, but even amongst the meanest artificers, the lowest of which will make no scruple, on your arrival, of offering you the city of Shirauz and all its appurtenances, as a peishkush, or present. This behaviour appears at first very remarkable to Europeans, but after a short time becomes equally familiar. Freedom of conversation is a thing totally unknown in Persia, as that *wall have ears* is proverbially in the mouth of every one.— The fear of chains which bind their bodies has also enslaved their minds; and their conversation to men of superior rank to themselves is marked with signs of the most abject and slavish submission; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

In their conversation the Persians aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verses and passages from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafez, Sadi, and Jami; a practice universally prevalent from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits arising from education, by the help of their memories which are very attentive, and what they learn by heart, are always ready to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their conversations, which is the strict attention they always pay to the person speaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a personable, and in many respects a handsome people: their complexions, saving those who are exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The bright and sparkling eyes of the women, which is a very striking beauty, is in a great measure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called surma) which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural lustre.

MARRIAGES.] When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out amongst their kindred and acquaintance for a suitable match; they then go to the house where the female, they intend to demand, lives. If the father of the woman approves, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in, which is taken as a direct sign of compliance. After this the usual presents on the part of the bridegroom are made, which if the person be in middling circumstances, generally consist of two complete suits of apparel of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a small sum in ready money, of about ten or twelve tomans, which is to provide for the wife in case of a divorce. There is also provided a quantity of houfehold ftuff of all forts, fuch as carpets, mats, bedding, utenfils for dreffing victuals, &c. The contract is witneffed by the cadi, or magiftrate. The wedding-night being come, the bride is brought forth covered from head to foot in a veil of red filk, or painted muflin; a horfe is then prefented for her to mount, which is fent hither exprefsly by the bridegroom; and when fhe is mounted, a large looking-glafs is held before her by one of the bridemaids, all the way to the houfe of her hufband, as an admonition to her, that it is the laft time fhe will look into the glafs as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married ftate. The proceffion then fets forward in the following order;—firft, the mufic and dancing girls, after which the prefents in trays born upon men's fhoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all fhouting, and making a great noife; who are followed by the bride herfelf, furrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horfe by the bridle, and feveral others on horfeback clofe the proceffion. Rejoicings upon this occafion generally continue eight or ten days. Men may marry for life, or for any determined time, in Perfia, as well as through all Tartary; and all travellers or merchants, who intend to ftay fome time in any city, commonly apply to the cadee, or judge, for a wife during the time he propofes to ftay. The cadee, for a ftated gratuity, produces a number of girls, whom he declares to be honeft, and free from difeafes; and he becomes furety for them. A gentleman who lately attended the Ruffian embaffy to Perfia declares, that, amongft thoufands, there has not been one inftance of their difhonefty during the time agreed upon.

FUNERALS.] The funerals of the Perfians are conducted in a manner fimilar to thofe in other Mahomedan countries. On the death of a Muffulman, the relations and friends of the deceafed being affembled, make loud lamentations over the corpfe; after which it is wafhed and laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city-walls, attended by a Mullah, or prieft, who chaunts paffages from the Koran all the way to the grave. If any Muffulman fhould chance to meet the corpfe during the proceffion, he is obliged by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his affiftance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the fame time, *Lah Illah, Ill Lillah!* There is no God, but God. After interment, the relations of the deceafed return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey and fpices, which they eat in memory of the deceafed; fending a part of it to their friends, and acquaintance, that they alfo may pay him a like honour. This cuftom feems to be derived from very great antiquity, as we read in Homer of facrifices and libations being frequently made to the memory of departed fouls.

RELIGION.] The Perfians are Mahometans of the fect of Ali; for which reafon the Turks, who follow the fucceffion of Omar and Abu Bekr call them heretics, Their religion is, if poffible, in fome things more fantaftical and fenfual than that of the Turks; but in many points it is mingled with fome Brahmin fuperftitions. When they are taxed by the Chriftians with drinking ftrong liquors, as many of them do, they anfwer very fenfibly, "You Chriftians whore and get drunk, though you know you are committing fins, which is the very cafe with us." Having mentioned the Bramins, the comparifon between them and the Perfians *guebres* or *gaurs*, who pretend to be the difciples and fucceffors of the ancient Magi, the followers of Zoroafter, may be highly worth a learned difquifition: that both of them held originally pure and fimple ideas of a Supreme Being, may be eafily proved; but the Indian Bramins and Parfes accufe the Gaurs, who ftill worfhip the fire, of having fenfualized thofe ideas, and of introducing an evil principle into the government of the world. A combuftible ground, about ten miles distant from Baku, a city in the north of Persia, is the scene of the Guebres devotions. It must be admitted, that this ground is impregnated with very surprising inflammatory qualities, and contains several old little temples; in one of which the Guebres pretend to preserve the sacred flame of the universal fire, which rises from the end of a large hollow cane stuck into the ground, resembling a lamp burning with very pure spirits. The Mahometans are the declared enemies of the Gaurs, who were banished out of Persia by Shah Abbas. Their sect, however, is said to be numerous, though tolerated in a fery few places.

The long wars between the Persians and the Romans, seem early to have driven the ancient Christians into Persia, and the neighbouring countries. Even to this day, many sects are found that evidently have Christianity for the ground-work of their religion. Some of them, called Soufees, who are a kind of quietists, sacrifice their passions to God, and profess the moral duties. The Sebean Christians have, in their religion, a mixture of Judaism and Mahometanism; and are numerous towards the Persian gulf. I have already mentioned the Armenian and Georgian Christians, who are very numerous in Persia. The present race of Persians are said to be very cool in the doctrines of Mahomet, owing partly to their late wars with the Turks.

The Persians observe the fast during the month of Ramazan (the 9th month of the Mahomedan year) with great strictness and severity. About an hour before daylight, they eat a meal which is called Sehre, and from that time until the next evening at sun-set, they neither eat or drink of any thing whatever. It is even so rigid, that if in the course of the day, the smoke of a calean, or the smallest drop of water, reaches their lips, the fast is in consequence deemed broken, and of no avail. From sun-set until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves. This fast, when the month Ramazàn falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do (the Mahomedan year being lunar) is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the day-time, and is still rendered more so, as there are also several nights during its existence, which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died, from a wound, which he received from the hands of an assassin, three days before; which night is the 21st of Ramazàn, the day of which is called by the natives the Day of Murder.—The other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koran was brought down from heaven by the hands of the angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mahomed: wherefore it is denominated the night of power.

Language.] It has been disputed among the learned, whether the Arabs had not their language from the Persians; but this chiefly rests on the great intermixture of Arabic words in the Persian language, and the decision seems to be in favour of the Arabs. The common people, especially towards the southern coasts of the Caspian Sea, speak Turkish; and the Arabic probably was introduced into Persia, under the caliphate, when learning flourished in those countries. Many of the learned Persians have written in the Arabic, and people of quality have adopted it as a modish language, as we do the French. The pure Persic is said to be spoken in the southern parts, on the coast of the Persian gulf, and in Ispahan; but many of the provinces speak a barbarous mixture of the Turkish, Russian, and other languages. Their Pater-noster is of the following tenour: *Ei Padere ma kih der osmoni; pac basched mam tu; bayayed padeschahi tu; schwad chwaáste tu benzjunáaukih der osmon niz derzemin; bih mara jmrouz nan kefaf rowz mara; wadarguasar mara konáhan ma zjunaukibma*

kibma niz mig farim orm:n mara; *wddor ozmajifch mined:zzmara*; *likin chalas kun mara ez efcherir.* Amen.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] The Perfians, in ancient times, were famous for both, and their poets renowned all over the Eaft. There is a manufcript at Oxford, containing the lives of an hundred and thirty-five of the fineft Perfian poets. Ferdufi and Sadi were among the moft celebrated of the Perfian poets. The former comprifed the hiftory of Perfia in a feries of epic poems, which employed him for near thirty years, and which are faid by Mr. Jones to be "a glorious monument of eaftern genius and learning." Sadi was a native of Shirauz, and flourifhed in the thirteenth century, and wrote many fine pieces both in profe and verfe. Shemfeddin was one of the moft eminent lyric poets that Afia has produced; and Nakhfheb wrote in Perfian a book, called the Tales of a Parrot, not unlike the Decameron of Boccace. Jami was a moft animated and elegant poet, who flourifhed in the middle of the fifteenth century, and whofe beautiful compofition, on a great variety of fubjects, are preferved at Oxford in twenty-two volumes. Hariri compofed in a rich, elegant, and flowery ftyle, a moral work, in fifty differtations, on the changes of fortune, and the various conditions of human life, interfperfed with a number of agreeable adventures, and feveral fine pieces of poetry.

Of the fprightly and voluptuous bard of Shirauz, the name and character are fufficiently known to orientalifts. It may, however, excite the curiofity of the Englifh reader, that the poet Hafez, here introduced to his notice, conciliated the favour of an offended emperor, by the delicacy of his wit, and the elegance of his verfes; that the moft powerful monarchs of the Eaft fought in vain to draw him from the enjoyment of literary retirement, and to purchafe the praifes of his Mufe by all the honours and fplendour of a court: and that his works were not only the admiration of the jovial and the gay, but the manual of myftic piety to the fuperftitious Mahometan; the oracle, which, like the *Sortes Virgilianæ*, determined the councils of the wife, and prognofticated the fate of armies and of ftates. Seventeen odes have already been tranflated into Englifh by Mr. Not, with which he has publifhed the originals, for the purpofe of promoting the ftudy of the Perfian language. The 21ft ode has alfo appeared in an Englifh drefs, by the elegant hand of fir William Jones.

The tomb of this celebrated and defervedly admired poet, ftands about two miles diftant from the walls of the city of Shirauz, on the north-eaft fide. It is placed in a large garden, and under the fhade of fome cyprefs trees of extraordinary fize and beauty; it is compofed of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet in length and four in breath: this was built by Kerim Khan, and covers the original one: on the top and fides of the tomb, are felect pieces from the poet's own works, moft beautifully cut in the Perfian Nuftaleek character. During the fpring and fummer feafons, the inhabitants vifit here, and amufe themfelves with fmoking, playing at chefs and other games, reading alfo the works of Hafez, who is in greater efteem with them than any other of their poets, and they venerate him almoft to adoration, never fpeaking of him but in the higheft terms of rapture and enthufiafm; a moft elegant copy of his works is kept upon the tomb, for the purpofe and the infpection of all who go there. The principal youth of the city affemble here; and fhew every poffible mark of refpect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shirauz to his memory. Clofe by the garden runs the ftream of Roknabad, fo celebrated in the works of Hafez, and, within a fmall diftance, the fweet bower of Mofellay.

At prefent learning is at a very low ebb among the Perfians. Their boasted skill in astronomy is now reduced to a mere smattering in that science, and terminates in judicial astrology; so that no people in the world are more superstitious than the Persians. The learned profession in greatest esteem among them is that of medicine; which is at perpetual variance with astrology, because every dose must be in the lucky hour fixed by the astrologer, which often defeats the ends of the prescription. It is said, however, that the Persian physicians are acute and sagacious. Their drugs are excellent, and they are no strangers to the practices of Galen and Avicenna. Add to this, that the plague is but little known in this country; as equally rare are many other diseases that are fatal in other places; such as the gout, the stone, the small-pox, consumptions, and apoplexies. The Persian practice of physic is therefore pretty much circumscribed, and they are very ignorant in surgery, which is exercised by barbers, whose chief knowledge of it is in letting blood; for they trust the healing of green wounds to the excellency of the air, and the good habit of the patient's body.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.] The monuments of antiquity in Persia, are more celebrated for their magnificence and expence, than their beauty or taste. No more than nineteen columns, which formerly belonged to the famous palace of *Persepolis, are now remaining. Each is about fifteen feet high, and composed of excellent Parian marble. The ruins of other ancient buildings are found in many parts of Persia, but void of that elegance and beauty which are displayed in the Greek architecture. The tombs of the kings of Persia are stupendous works; being cut out of a rock, and highly ornamented with sculptures. The chief of the modern edifices is a pillar to be seen at Ispahan, sixty feet high, consisting of the skulls of beasts, erected by Shah Abbas, after the suppression of a rebellion. Abbas had vowed to erect such a column of human skulls; but upon the submission of the rebels, he performed his vow by substituting those of brutes, each of the rebels furnishing one.

The baths near Gombroon work such cures, that they are esteemed among the natural curiosities of Persia. The springs of the famous Naptha, near Baku, are mentioned often in natural history for their surprising qualities; but the chief of the natural curiosities in this country, is the burning phænomenon, and its inflammatory neighbourhood, already mentioned under the article of Religion.

HOUSES, CITIES, AND PUBLIC EDIFICES.] The houses of men of quality in Persia, are in the same taste with those of the Asiatic Turks already described. They are seldom above one story high, built of bricks, with flat roofs for walking on, and thick walls. The hall is arched, the doors are clumsy and narrow, and the rooms have no communication but with the hall; the kitchens and office houses being built apart. Few of them have chimnies, but a round hole in the middle of the room. Their furniture chiefly consists of carpets, and their beds are two thick cotton quilts, which serve them likewise as coverlids, with carpets under them.

Ispahan or Spahawn, the capital of Persia, is seated on a fine plain, within a mile of the river Zenderhend, which supplies it with water. It is said to be twelve miles in circumference. The streets are narrow and crooked, and the chief amusement of the inhabitants is on the flat roofs of their houses, where they spend their summer evenings; and different fami-

* Mr. Francklin has lately favoured the world with a very full account of the ruins of this celebrated palace. We have availed ourselves of many of his observations upon this empire; but his description of these ruins is too long to be inserted in this work.

lies associate together. The royal square is a third of a mile in length, and about half as much in breadth: and we are told, that the royal palace, with the buildings and gardens belonging to it, is three miles in circumference. There are in Ispahan 160 mosques, 1800 caravanserais, 260 public baths, a prodigious number of fine squares, streets and palaces, in which are canals, and trees planted to shade and better accommodate the people. This capital is said formerly to have contained 650,000 inhabitants; but was often depopulated by Kouli Khan during his wars, so that we may easily suppose, that it has lost great part of its ancient magnificence. In 1744, when M. Hanway was there, it was thought that not above 5000 of its houses were inhabited.

Shirauz lies about 225 miles to the south-east of Ispahan. It is an open town, but its neighbourhood is inexpressibly rich and beautiful, being laid out for many miles in gardens, the flowers, fruits, and wines of which are incomparable. The wines of Shirauz are reckoned the best of any in Persia. This town is the capital of Farsistan, or Persia Proper, and hath a college for the study of eastern learning. It contains an uncommon number of mosques, and is adorned by many noble buildings, but its streets are narrow and inconvenient, and not above 4000 of its houses are inhabited. Shirauz has many good bazars and caravanserais; that distinguished by the appellation of the Vakeel's bazar (so called from its being built by Kherim Khan) is, upon the authority of Mr. Francklin, who lately visited it, by far the handsomest. It is a long street, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed something in the style of the piazzas in Covent Garden; it is lofty and well made; on each side are the shops of the tradesmen, merchants, and others, in which are exposed for sale, a variety of goods of all kinds; these shops are the property of the khan, and are rented to the merchants at a very easy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar is a spacious caravanserai, of an octagon form, built of brick; the entrance through a handsome arched gate-way; in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandize, and on the sides above and below, commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; these are also rented at a moderate monthly sum. About the centre of the above-mentioned bazar, is another spacious caravanserai of a square form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to represent China ware, and has a pleasing effect to the eye.

The cities of Ormus and Gombroon, on the narrow part of the Persian Gulf, were formerly places of great commerce and importance. The English and other Europeans, have factories at Gombroon, where they trade with the Persians, Arabians, Banyans, Armenians, Turks, and Tartars, who come hither with the caravans which set out from various inland cities of Asia, under the convoy of guards.

Mosques and bagnios.] I thought proper to place them here under a general head, as their form of building is pretty much the same all over the Mahometan countries.

Mosques are religious buildings, square, and generally of stone: before the chief gate there is a square court, paved with white marble, and low galleries round it, whose roof is supported by marble pillars. Those galleries serve for places of ablution before the Mahometans go into the mosque. About every mosque there are six high towers, called minarets, each of which has three little open galleries, one above another. These towers, as well as the mosques, are covered with lead and adorned with gilding and other ornaments; and from thence, instead of a bell, the people are called to prayer by certain officers appointed for that purpose. No woman is allowed to enter the mosque; nor can a man with his shoes or stockings on. Near most mosques is a place of entertainment for strangers during three days; and the tomb of the founder, with conveniences for reading the Koran, and praying.

The city of Shirauz is adorned (according to Mr. Francklin) with many fine mosques, particularly that built by the late Kherim Khan, which is a noble one; being very well disguised, says our traveller, in my Persian dress, I had an opportunity of entering the building unobserved; it is of a square form; in the centre is a stone reservoir of water, made for performing the necessary ablutions, previous to prayer; on the four sides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotion, some of the front of which are covered with China tiles; but Kerim Khan dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work. Within the apartments, on the walls, on each side are engraved various sentences from the Koran, in the Nushki character; and at the upper end of the square, is a large dome with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the vakeel or sovereign: this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis luzuli, and has three large silver lamps suspended from the roof of the dome. In the centre of the city is another mosque, which the Persians call the Musjidi Nco, or the New Mosque, but its date is nearly coeval with the city itself, at least, since it has been inhabited by Mahomedans: it is a square building of a noble size, and has apartments for prayer on each side; in them are many inscriptions in the old Cufick character, which of themselves denote the antiquity of the place.

The bagnios in the Mahometan countries are wonderfully well constructed for the purpose of bathing. Sometimes they are square, but oftener circular, built of white well polished stone or marble. Each bagnio contains three rooms; the first for dressing and undressing; the second contains the water, and the third the bath; all of them paved with black and white marble. The operation of the bath is very curious, but wholesome; though to those not accustomed to it, it is painful. The waiter rubs the patient with great vigour, then handles and stretches his limbs as if he was dislocating every bone in the body; all which exercises are, in those inert warm countries, very conducive to health. In public bagnios, the men bathe from morning to four in the afternoon; when all male attendants being removed, the ladies succeed, and when coming out of the bath display their finest clothes.

I might here attempt to describe the eastern seraglios, or harams, the women's apartments; but from the most credible accounts, they are contrived according to the taste and conveniency of the owner, and divided into a certain number of apartments, which are seldom or never entered by strangers; and there is no country where women are so strictly guarded and confined, as among the great men in Persia.

POLICE.] The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Persia, is very good. At sun-set, the gates of the city are shut; no person whatever is permitted either to come in or go out, during the night; the keys of the different gates being always sent to the hakim or governor, and remaining with him until morning. During the night, three tablas, or drums, are beaten at three different times; the first at eight o'clock, the second at nine, and the third at half past ten. After the third tabla has sounded, all persons whatsoever found in the streets by the daroga, or judge of the police, or by any of his people, are instantly taken up, and conveyed to a place of confinement, where they are detained until next morning, when they are carried before the hakim; and if they cannot give a very good account of themselves, are punished, either by the bastinado, or a fine.

Civil matters are all determined by the cazi, and ecclesiastical ones, (particularly divorces) by the sheick al Sellaum, or head of the faith, an office answering to that of Mufti in Turkey. Justice is carried on in Persia in a very summary manner; the sentence, whatever it may be, being always put into execution on the spot. Theft is generally punished with the loss of nose and ears; robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly of the criminal, in which situation he is exposed upon a gibbet in one of the most public parts of the city, and there left until he expires in torment: a dreadful punishment, but it renders robberies in Persia very uncommon. The punishments in this country are so varied and cruel, that humanity shudders at the thought; and the happy Englishman, viewing them, blesses himself that he is born in the arms of freedom, where property is not only sacred, but justice administered with mercy!

Manufactures and commerce.] The Persians equal, if not exceed, all the manufacturers in the world in silk, woolen, mohair, carpets, and leather. Their works in these join fancy, taste, and elegance to richness, neatness, and show; and yet they are ignorant of painting, and their drawings are very rude. Their dying excels that of Europe. Their silver and gold laces, and threads, are admirable for preserving their lustre. Their embroideries and horse furniture are not to be equalled; nor are they ignorant of the pottery and window-glass manufactures. On the other hand, their carpenters are very indifferent artists, which is said to be owing to the scarcity of timber all over Persia. Their jewellers and goldsmiths are clumsy workmen; and they are ignorant of lock-making, and the manufacture of looking-glasses. Upon the whole, they lie under inexpressible disadvantages from the form of their government, which renders them slaves to their kings, who often engross either their labour or their profits.

The trade of the Persians, who have little or no shipping of their own, is carried on in foreign bottoms. That with the English and other nations, by the gulf of Ormus at Gombroon, was the most gainful they had; but the perpetual wars they have been engaged in have ruined their commerce. The great scheme of the English in trading with the Persians through Russia, promised vast advantages to both nations, but it has hitherto answered the expectations of neither. Perhaps the court of Petersburgh is not fond of suffering the English to establish themselves upon the Caspian Sea, the navigation of which is now possessed by the Russians; the Caspian Sea is about 680 miles long and 260 broad in the widest part. It has no tide, but is navigable by vessels drawing from 9 to 10 feet water, with several good ports. The Russian ports are Kislar and Gurief. Derbent and Niezabad belong to Persia, as also Einzellee and Astrabad, with Baku, the most commodious haven in this sea, and which hath a fortress surrounded with high walls. As the manufactures and silk of Ghilan are esteemed the best in Persia, Reschd on the Caspian is one of the first commercial towns in this part of Asia, and supplies the bordering provinces with European merchandize.

Constitution and government.] Both these are extremely precarious, as resting in the breast of a despotic, and often capricious monarch. The Persians, however, had some fundamental rules of government. They excluded from their throne females, but not theit male progeny. Blindness likewise was a disqualification for the royal succession. In other respects the king's will was a law for the people. The instances that have been given of the cruelties and inhumanities practised by the Mahometan kings of Persia, are almost incredible, especially during the last two centuries. The reason given to the Christian ambassadors, by Shah Abbas, one of their most celebrated princes, was, that the Persians were such brutes, and so insensible by nature, that they could not be governed without the exercise of exemplary cruelties. But this was only a wretched and ill-grounded apology for his own barbarity. The favourites of the prince, female as well as male, are his only counsellors, and the smallest disobedience to their will is attended with immediate death. The Persians have no degrees of nobility, so that the respect due to every man, on account of his high station, expires with himself. The king has been known to prefer a younger son to his throne, by putting out the eyes of the elder brother.

REVENUES.] The king claims one third of the cattle, corn, and fruits of his subjects, and likewise a third of silk and cotton. No rank or condition of Persians is exempted from severe taxations and services. The governors of provinces have particular lands assigned to them for maintaining their retinues and troops; and the crown lands defray the expences of the court, king's household, and great officers of state. After saying thus much, the reader cannot doubt, that the revenues of the Persian kings were prodigious; but nothing can be said with any certainty in the present distracted state of that country. Even the water that is let into fields and gardens is subject to a tax; and foreigners, who are not Mahometans, pay each a ducat a head.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] This consisted formerly of cavalry, and it is now thought to exceed that of the Turks. Since the beginning of this century, however, their kings have raised bodies of infantry. The regular troops of both brought to the field, even under Kouli Khan, did not exceed 60,000; but, according to the modern histories of Persia, they are easily recruited in case of a defeat. The Persians have few fortified towns; nor had they any ships of war, until Kouli Khan built a royal navy; but since his death we hear no more of their fleet.

ARMS AND TITLES.] The arms of the Persian monarch are a lion couchant looking at the rising sun. His title is Shah, or the "*Disposer of Kingdoms.*" Shah or Khan, and Sultan, which he assumes likewise, are Tartar titles. To acts of state the Persian monarch does not subscribe his name; but the grant runs in this manner: "This act is given by him whom the universe obeys."

HISTORY.] All ancient historians mention the Persian monarchs and their grandeur; and no empire has undergone a greater variety of governments. It is here sufficient to say, that the Persian empire succeeded the Assyrian or Babylonian, and that Cyrus laid its foundation about 556 years before Christ, and restored the Israelites, who had been captive at Babylon, to liberty. It ended in the person of Darius, who was conquered by Alexander 329 years before Christ. When Alexander's empire was divided among his great general officers, their posterity were conquered by the Romans. These last, however, never fully subdued Persia, and the natives had princes of their own, by the name of Arsacides, who more than once defeated the Roman legions. The successors of those princes survived the Roman empire itself, but were subdued by the famous Tamerlane, whose posterity were supplanted by a doctor of law, the ancestor of the Sefi or Sophi family, and who pretended to be descended from Mahomet himself. His successors, from him sometimes called Sophis, though some of them were valiant and politic, proved in general to be a disgrace to humanity, by their cruelty, ignorance, and indolence, which brought them into such a disrepute with their subjects, barbarous as they were, that

Hassein, a prince of the Sefi race, who succeeded in 1694, was murdered by Mahmud, son and successor to the famous Miriweis; as Mahmud himself was by Esref, one of his general officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Tahmas, the representative of the Sefi family, had escaped from the rebels, and assembling an army, took into his service Nadir Shah, who defeated and killed Esref, and re-annexed to the Persian monarchy all the places dismembered from it by the Turks and Tartars during their late rebellions. At last the secret ambition of Nadir broke out, and after assuming the name of Tahmas Kouli Khan, and pretending that his services were not sufficiently rewarded, he rebelled against his sovereign, made him a prisoner, and, it is supposed, put him to death.

This usurper afterwards mounted the throne, under the title of Shah Nadir. His expedition into Indostan, and the amazing booty he made there, has been mentioned in the description of that country. It has been remarked, that he brought back an inconsiderable part of his booty from India, losing great part of it upon his return by the Marattas and accidents. He next conquered Usbec Tartary; but was not so successful against the Daghistan Tartars, whose country he found to be inaccessible. He beat the Turks in several engagements, but was unable to take Bagdad. The great principle of his government was to strike terror into all his subjects by the most cruel executions. His conduct became so intolerable, and particularly his attempt to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar, and hanging the chief priests that resisted, it was thought his brain was touched; and he was assassinated in his own tent, partly in self-defence, by his chief officers and his relations, in the year 1747. Many pretenders, upon his death, started up; and it may naturally be supposed, that a chronological and accurate account of these various and rapid revolutions is very difficult to be obtained. The confusion which prevailed through the whole country, from the death of Nadir, until the settlement of Kerim Khan, prevented all attempts of literature, arts, and sciences. During this interval, the whole empire of Persia was in arms, and rent by commotions; different parties in different provinces of the kingdom struggling for power, and each endeavouring to render himself independent of the other, torrents of blood were shed, and the most shocking crimes were committed with impunity. The whole face of the country, from Gombroon to Russia, presents to the view thousands of instances of the misery and devastation which has been occasioned by these commotions. The picture is melancholy, but just.

From the accounts we have been able to collect, the series of pretenders to the throne of Persia, from the death of Nadir Shaw, until the final establishment of Kerim Khan's government, was no less than nine, including himself. Kerim Khan Zund was a most favourite officer of Nadir Shah, and at the time of his death was in the southern provinces. Shirauz and other places had declared for him. He found means, at last, after various encounters, with doubtful success, completely to subdue all his rivals; and finally to establish himself as ruler of all Persia. He was in power about thirty years, the latter part of which he governed Persia under the appellation of Vakeel, or regent; for he never would receive the title of Shah. He made Shirauz the chief city of his residence, in gratitude for the assistance he had received from its inhabitants, and those of the southern inhabitants. He died in the year 1779, in the eightieth year of his age, regretted by all his subjects, who esteemed and honoured him as the glory of Persia. His character is most deservedly celebrated for the public buildings which he erected, and the excellent police which he maintained: so that during his whole reign, there was not in Shirauz a single riot productive of bloodshed; besides these, his aversion to severe punishments, his liberality and kindness to the poor, his toleration of people of different persuasions, his partiality for Europeans, and his encouragement of trade, together with his great military abilities, and personal courage, rendered him not only beloved by his own subjects, but greatly respected by foreign powers.

From the death of Kerim Khan, to the present time, a variety of competitors have been desirous of filling the throne of Persia. Of these we shall only mention the two principal. Akau Mahomet Khan keeps possession of the provinces of Mazanderan and Ghilan, as well as the cities of Ispahan, Hamadan, and Tauris, where he is acknowledged as sovereign. Jaafar Khan, has possession of the city of Shirauz, and the provinces of Beaboon and Shuster: he also receives an annual present from the province of Carmania, and another from the city of Yezd; Abu Shehr and Lar also send him tribute. The southern provinces are in general more fruitful than those to the northward, they not having been so frequently the scenes of action during the late revolutions.

Jaafar Khan is a middle-aged man, very corpulent, and has a cast in his right eye: in the places where he is acknowledged, he is well beloved and respected. He is very mild in his disposition, and just. In Shirauz he keeps up a most excellent police, and good government. He is very kind and obliging to strangers in general, and to the English in particular. Of the two competitors who at present contend for the government of Persia, he is the most likely, in case of success against his opponent, to restore the country to a happy and reputable state; but it will require a long space of time, to recover it from the calamities into which the different revolutions have brought it:---a country, if an oriental metaphor may be allowed, once blooming as the garden of Eden, fair and flourishing to the eye;---now, sad reverse! despoiled and leafless by the cruel ravages of war, and desolating contention.

The forces of the two competitors are nearly equal, consisting of about twenty thousand men, chiefly horse. This was the situation of the country in 1788, according to the report of the last advices, when the fate of Persia was still undecided.

ARABIA.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles
Length	1300	between	35 and 60 East long.	700,000
Breadth	1200		12 and 30 North lat.	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Turkey, on the north; by the gulfs of Persia or Bassora, and Ormus, which separate it from Persia, on the East; by the Indian Ocean, south; and the Red Sea, which divides it from Africa, on the West.

Divisions.	Sub-divisions.	Chief Towns.
1. Arabia Petræa, N. W.	——— ———	Suez, E. lon. 33-27. N. lat. 29-50.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
2. Arabia Deſerta, in the middle.	Haggiaz or Mecca —	Mecca, E. long. 43-30. N. lat. 21-20.
		Siden
		Medina
	Tehama — —	Dhafar
3. Arabia Felix, SE.	Mocha — —	Mocha, E. lon. 44-4. N. lat. 13-45.
		Sibit
	Hadramut —	Hadramut
	Caſſeen —	Caſſeen
	Segur —	Segur
	Oman or Muſcat	Muſcat
	Jamama —	Jamama
	Bahara —	Elcalf.

Name.] It is remarkable that this country has always preſerved its ancient name. The word *Arab*, it is generally ſaid, ſignifies a robber, or freebooter. The word *Saracen*, by which one tribe is called, is ſaid to ſignify both a thief and an inhabitant of the deſert. Theſe names juſtly belong to the Arabians, for they ſeldom let any merchandize paſs through the country without extorting ſomething from the owners, if they do not rob them.

Mountains. The mountains of Sinai and Horeb, lying in Arabia Petræa, eaſt of the Red Sea, and thoſe called Gabel el Ared, in Arabia Felix, are the moſt noted.

Rivers, seas, gulfs and capes.] There are few mountains, ſprings, or rivers in this country, except the Euphrates, which waſhes the north-eaſt limits of it. It is almoſt ſurrounded with ſeas; as the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, the gulfs of Perſia and Ormus. The chief capes or promontories are thoſe of Roſalgate and Muſledon.

Climate, air, soil, and produce.] As a conſiderable part of this country lies under the torrid zone, and the tropic of Cancer paſſes over Arabia Felix, the air is exceſſively dry and hot, and the country is ſubject to hot poiſonous winds, like thoſe on the oppoſite ſhores of Perſia, which often prove fatal, eſpecially to ſtrangers. The ſoil, in ſome parts is nothing more than immenſe ſands, which, when agitated by the winds, roll like the troubled ocean, and ſometimes form mountains by which whole caravans have been buried or loſt. In theſe deſerts, the caravans, having no tracks, are guided, as at ſea, by a compaſs, or by the ſtars, for they travel chiefly in the night. Here, ſays Dr. Shaw, are no paſtures clothed with flocks, nor valleys ſtanding thick with corn; here are no vineyards or olive-yards; but the whole is a loneſome deſolate wilderneſs, no other ways diverſified than by plains covered with ſand, and mountains that are made up of naked rocks and precipices. Neither is this country ever, unleſs ſometimes at the equinoxes, refreſhed with rain; and the intenſeneſs of the cold in the night is almoſt equal to that of the heat in the day time. But the ſouthern part of Arabia, deſervedly called the Happy, is bleſſed with an excellent ſoil, and in general, is very fertile. There the cultivated lands, which are chiefly about the towns near the ſea coaſt, produce balm of Gilead, manna, myrrh, caſſia, aloes, frankincenſe, ſpikenard, and other valuable gums; cinnamon, pepper, cardamom, oranges, lemons, pomegranates, figs, and other fruits; honey, and wax in plenty, with a ſmall quantity of corn and wine. This country is famous for its coffee and its dates, which last are found scarcely any where in such perfection as here and in Persia. There are few trees fit for timber in Arabia, and little wood of any kind.

ANIMALS.] The most useful animals in Arabia are camels and dromedaries; they are amazingly fitted by Providence for traversing the dry and parched deserts of this country; for they are so formed that they can throw up the liquor from their stomach into their throats, by which means they can travel six or eight days without water. The camels usually carry 800lb. weight upon their backs, which is not taken off during the whole journey, for they naturally kneel down to rest, and in due time rise with their load. The dromedary is a small camel that will travel many miles a day. It is an observation among the Arabs, that wherever there are trees, the water is not far off; and when they draw near a pool, their camels will smell at a distance, and set up their great trot till they come to it. The Arabian horses are well known in Europe, and have contributed to improve the breed of those in England. They are only fit for the saddle, and are admired for their make as much as for their swiftness and high mettle. The finest breed is in the kingdom of Sunnaa, in which Mocha is situated.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DRESS.] The Arabians, like most of the nations of Asia, are of a middle stature, thin, and of a swarty complexion, with black hair and black eyes. They are swift of foot, excellent horsemen, and are said to be, in general, a martial brave people, expert at the bow and lance, and, since they became acquainted with fire arms, good marksmen. The inhabitants of the inland country live in tents, and remove from place to place with their flocks and herds, as they have ever done since they became a nation.

The Arabians in general are such thieves, that travellers and pilgrims, who are led thither from all nations, through motives of devotion or curiosity, are struck with terror on their approaches towards the deserts. These robbers, headed by a captain, traverse the country in considerable troops on horseback, and assault and plunder the caravans; and we are told, that so late as the year 1750, a body of 50,000 Arabians, attacked a caravan of merchants and pilgrims returning from Mecca, killed about 60,000 persons, and plundered it of every thing valuable, though escorted by a Turkish army. On the sea-coast they are mere pirates, and make prize of every vessel they can master, of whatever nation.

The habit of the roving Arabs is a kind of blue shirt, tied about them with a white sash or girdle; and some of them have a vest of furs or sheep-skins over it; they also wear drawers, and sometimes slippers, but no stockings; and have a cap or turban on their head. Many of them go almost naked; but, as in the eastern countries, the women are so wrapped up, that nothing can be discerned but their eyes. Like other Mahometans, the Arabs eat all manner of flesh, except that of hogs; and prefer the flesh of camels, as we prefer venison to other meat. They take care to drain the blood from the flesh, as the Jews do, and like them refuse such fish as have no scales. Coffee, and tea, water, and sherbet made of oranges, water and sugar, is their usual drink: they have no strong liquors.

RELIGION.] Of this the reader will find an account in the following history of Mahomet their countryman. Many of the wild Arabs are still Pagans, but the people in general profess Mahometanism.

LEARNING AND LANGUAGE.] Though the Arabins in former ages were famous for their learning and skill in all the liberal arts, there is scarcely a country at present where the people are so universally ignorant.

The vulgar language uſed in the three Arabias is, the Arabeſk, or corrupt Arabian, which is likewiſe ſpoken, with ſome variation of dialect, over great part of the Eaſt, from Egypt to the court of the Great Mogul. The pure old grammatical Arabic, which is ſaid to be a dialect of the Hebrew, and by the people of the Eaſt accounted the richeſt, moſt energetic, and copious language in the world, is taught in their ſchools, as Greek and Latin is amongſt Europeans, and uſed by Mahometans in their worſhip: for as the Koran was written in this language, they will not ſuffer it to be read in any other; they look upon it to have been the language of Paradiſe, and think no man can be a maſter of it without a miracle, as conſiſting of ſeveral millions of words. The books which treat of it ſay, they have no fewer than a thouſand terms to expreſs the word *camel*, and five hundred for that of a *lion*. The Pater-noſter in Arabic is as follows:

Abuna elladhi fi-ſſamwat; jetkaddas eſmac; tati malacutac: taouri maſchiatic, cama fi-ſſama; kedhalec ala lardh aating chobzena keſatna iaum biaum; wagfer lena donubena wachataina, cama nogfor nachna lemen aca doina; wala tadalchalna fibajarib; laken mejjina me nneſcherir. Amen.

CHIEF CITIES, CURIOSITIES, AND ARTS.} What is called the Deſert of Sinai, is a beautiful plain near nine miles long, and above three in breadth; it lies open to the north-eaſt, but to the ſouthward is cloſed by ſome of the lower eminences of Mount Sinai; and other parts of that mountain make ſuch encroachments upon the plain as to divide it in two, each ſo capacious as to be ſufficient to receive the whole camp of the Iſraelites.

From Mount Sinai, may be ſeen Mount Horeb, where Moſes kept the flocks of Jethro, his father-in-law, when he ſaw the burning buſh. On thoſe mountains are many chapels and cells, poſſeſſed by the Greek and Latin monks, who, like the religious at Jeruſalem, pretend to ſhow the very ſpot where every miracle or tranſaction recorded in Scripture happened.

The chief cities in Arabia are Mocha, Aden, Muſcat, Suez, and Juddah, where moſt of the trade of this country is carried on.

Mocha is well built, the houſes very lofty, and are with the walls and forts covered with a chinam or ſtucco, that gives a dazzling whiteneſs to them. The harbour is ſemicircular, the circuit of the wall is two miles, and there are ſeveral handſome moſques in the city. Suez, the Arnſinoe of the ancients, is ſurrounded by the Deſert, and is but a ſhabby ill-built place. The ſhips are forced to anchor a league from the town, to which the leading channel has only about nine feet water. Juddah is the place of the greateſt trade in the Red Sea, for there the commerce between Arabia and Europe meets, and is interchanged, the former ſending her gums, drugs, coffee, &c. and from Europe comes cloths, iron, furs, and other articles, by the way of Cairo. The revenues of theſe, with the profits of the port, are ſhared by the Grand Signior and the Xeriff of Mecca, to whom this place jointly belongs.

Mecca, the capital of all Arabia, and Medina, deſerve particular notice. At Mecca, the birth-place of Mahomet, is a moſque ſo glorious, that it is generally counted the moſt magnificent of any temple in the Turkiſh dominions: its lofty roof being raiſed in faſhion of a dome, and covered with gold, with two beautiful towers at the end, of extraordinary height and architecture, make a delightful appearance, and are conſpicuous at a great diſtance. The moſque hath a hundred gates, with a window over each; and the whole building within is decorated with the fineſt gildings and tapeſtry. The number of pilgrims who yearly viſit this place is almoſt incredible, every Muſſulman being obliged by his religion to come hither once in his lifetime, or send a deputy. At Medina, about fifty miles from the Red Sea, the city to which Mahomet fled when he was driven out of Mecca, and the place where he was buried, is a stately mosque supported by 400 pillars, and furnished with 300 silver lamps, which are continually burning. It is called the "*Most Holy*," by the Turks, because in it is placed the coffin of their prophet Mahomet, covered with cloth of gold, under a canopy of silver tissue, which the bashaw of Egypt, by order of the Grand Signor, renews every year. The camel which carries it, derives a sort of sanctity from it, and is never to be used in any drudgery afterwards. Over the foot of the coffin, is a rich golden crescent, so curiously wrought, and adorned with precious stones, that it is esteemed a master-piece of great value. Thither the pilgrims resort, as to Mecca, but not in such numbers.

GOVERNMENT.] The inland country of Arabia is under the government of many petty princes, who are stiled xeriffs and imans, both of them including the offices of king and priest, in the same manner as the caliphs of the Saracens, the successors of Mahomet. These monarchs appear to be absolute, both in spirituals and temporals; the succession is hereditary, and they have no other laws than those found in the Koran, and the comments upon it. The northern Arabs owe subjection to the Turks, and are governed by bashaws residing among them; but it is certain, that they receive large gratuities from the Grand Signor, for protecting the pilgrims that pass through their country, from the robberies of their countrymen. The Arabians have no standing regular militia, but the king's command both the persons and the purses of their subjects, as the necessity of affairs require.

HISTORY.] The history of this country in some measure differs from that of all others; for as the slavery and subjection of other nations make a great part of their history, that of the Arabs is entirely composed of their conquests or independence. The Arabs are descended from Ishmael, of whose posterity it was foretold, that they should be invincible, "have their hands against every man, and every man's hands against theirs." They are at present, and have remained from the remotest ages, during the various conquests of the Greeks, Romans, and Tartars, a convincing proof of the divinity of his prediction. Towards the north, and the sea-coasts of Arabia, the inhabitants are, indeed, kept in awe by the Turks; but the wandering tribes in the southern and inland parts acknowledge themselves the subjects of no foreign power, and do not fail to harass and annoy all strangers who come into their country. The conquests of the Arabs make as wonderful a part of their history, as the independence and freedom which they have ever continued to enjoy. These, as well as their religion began with one man, whose character forms a very singular phœnomenon in the history of mankind. This was the famous Mahomet, a native of Mecca, a city of that division of Arabia, which for the luxuriancy of its soil, and happy temperature of its climate, has ever been esteemed the loveliest, and sweetest region of the world, and distinguished by the epithet of Happy.

Mahomet was born in the sixth century, anno 569, in the reign of Justinian II, emperor of Constantinople. Though descended of mean parentage, illiterate and poor, Mahomet was endued with a subtile genius, like those of the same country, and possessed a degree of enterprise and ambition peculiar to himself, and much beyond his condition. He had been employed in the early part of his life, by an uncle, Abuteleb, as a factor, and had occasion in this capacity, to travel into Syria, Palestine, and Egypt. He was afterwards taken into the service of a rich merchant upon whose death he married his widow, Cadiga, and by her means came to be possessed of great wealth and of a numerous family. During his peregrinations into Egypt and the East, he had observed the vast variety of sects in religion, whose hatred against each other was strong and inveterate, while at the same time there were many particulars in which the greater part of them were agreed. He carefully laid hold of these particulars, by means of which, and by addressing himself to the love of power, riches, and pleasure, passions universal among men, he expected to raise a new system of religion, more general than any which hitherto had been established. In this design he was assisted by Sergius, a monk, whose libertine disposition had made him forsake his cloister and profession, and engage in the service of Cadiga, with whom he remained as a domestic when Mahomet was taken to her bed. This monk was perfectly qualified, by his great learning, for supplying the defects which his master, for want of a liberal education, laboured under, and which, in all probability, must have obstructed the execution of his design. It was necessary, however, that the religion they proposed to establish should have a divine sanction; and for this purpose Mahomet turned a calamity, with which he was afflicted, to his advantage. He was often subject to fits of the epilepsy, a disease which those whom it afflicts are desirous to conceal. Mahomet gave out therefore that these fits were trances into which he was miraculously thrown by God Almighty, during which he was instructed in his will, which he was commanded to publish to the world. By this strange story, and by leading a retired, abstemious, and austere life, he easily acquired a character for superior sanctity among his acquaintance and neighbours. When he thought himself sufficiently fortified by the numbers and the enthusiasm of his followers, he boldly declared himself a prophet sent by God into the world, not only to teach his will, but to compel mankind to obey it.

As we have already mentioned, he did not lay the foundation of his system so narrow as only to comprehend the natives of his own country. His mind, though rude and enthusiastic, was enlarged by travelling into distant lands, whose manners and religion he had made a peculiar study. He proposed that the system he established should extend over all the neighbouring nations, to whose doctrines and prejudices he had taken care to adapt it. Many of the inhabitants of the eastern countries were at this time much addicted to the opinions of Arius, who denied that Jesus Christ was co-equal with God the Father, as is declared in the Athanasian creed. Egypt and Arabia were filled with Jews, who had fled into these corners of the world from the persecution of the emperor Adrian, who threatened the total extinction of that people. The other inhabitants of these countries were Pagans. These, however, had little attachment to their decayed and derided idolatry; and like men whose religious principle is weak, had given themselves over to pleasure and sensuality, or to the acquisition of riches, to be the better able to indulge in the gratifications of sense, which, together with the doctrine of predestination, composed the sole principles of their religion and philosophy. Mahomet's system was exactly suited to these three kinds of men. To gratify the two former, he declared that there was one God, who created the world and governed all things in it; that he had sent various prophets into the world to teach his will to mankind, among whom Moses and Jesus Christ were the most eminent; but the endeavours of these had proved ineffectual, and God had therefore now sent his last and greatest prophet, with a commission more ample than what Moses or Christ had been entrusted with. He had commanded him not only to publish his laws, but to subdue those who were unwilling to believe or obey them; and for this end, to eſtabliſh a kingdom upon earth which ſhould propagate the divine law throughout the world; that God had deſigned utter ruin and deſtruction to thoſe who ſhould refuſe to ſubmit to him; but to his faithful followers, he had given the ſpoils and poſſeſſions of all the earth, as a reward in this life, and had provided for them hereafter a paradiſe of all ſenſual enjoyments, eſpecially thoſe of love; that the pleaſures of ſuch as died in propagating the faith, would be peculiarly intenſe, and vaſtly tranſcend thoſe of the reſt. Theſe, together with the prohibition of drinking ſtrong liquors (a reſtraint not very ſevere in warm climates) and the doctrine of predeſtination, were the capital articles of Mahomet's creed. They were no ſooner publiſhed, than a vaſt many of his countrymen embraced them with implicit faith. They were written by the prieſt we formerly mentioned, and compoſe a book called the Koran, or Alkoran, by way of eminence, as we ſay the Bible, which means the Book. The perſon of Mahomet, however, was familiar to the inhabitants of Mecca; ſo that the greater part of them were ſufficiently convinced of the deceit. The more enlightened and leading men entered into a deſign to cut him off; but Mahomet getting notice of their intention, fled from his native city to Medina Tahmachi, or the City of the Prophet. The fame of his miracles and doctrine was, according to cuſtom, greateſt at a diſtance, and the inhabitants of Medina received him with open arms. From this flight, which happened in the 622nd year of Chriſt, the fifty-fourth year of Mahomet's age, and the tenth of his miniſtry, his followers, the Mahometans, compute their time; and the æra is called, in Arabic, Hegira, i. e. the Flight.

Mahomet, by the aſſiſtance of the inhabitants of Medina, and of others whom his inſinuation and addreſs daily attached to him, brought over all his countrymen to a belief, or at leaſt to an acquieſcence in his doctrines. The ſpeedy propagation of his ſyſtem among the Arabians was a new argument in its behalf among the inhabitants of Egypt and the Eaſt, who were previouſly diſpoſed to it. Arians, Jews, and Gentiles, all forſook their ancient faith, and became Mahometans. In a word, the contagion ſpread over Arabia, Syria, Egypt, and Perſia; and Mahomet, from a deceitful hypocrite, became the moſt powerful monarch in his time. He was proclaimed king at Medina, in the year 627; and after ſubduing part of Arabia and Syria, he died in 632, leaving two branches of his race, both eſteemed divine among their ſubjects. Theſe were the caliphs of Perſia and of Egypt, under the laſt of which Arabia was included. The former of theſe turned their arms to the Eaſt, and made conqueſts of many countries. The caliphs of Egypt and Arabia directed their ravages towards Europe; and under the name of Saracens or Moors (which they obtained becauſe they entered Europe from Mauritania, in Africa, the country of the Moors) reduced moſt of Spain, France, Italy, and the iſlands in the Mediterranean.

In this manner did the ſucceſſors of that impoſtor ſpread their religion nd conqueſts over the greateſt part of Aſia, Africa, and Europe; and hey ſtill give law to a very conſiderable part of mankind.

The INDIAN and ORIENTAL ISLANDS.

THE JAPAN ISLANDS, Japan or Niphon, Bongo, Tonſa, and Dezima, form together what has been called the empire of JAPAN, and are governed by a moſt deſpotic prince, who is ſometimes called emperor,

peror, and sometimes king. They are situated about 150 miles east of China, and extend from the 30th to the 41st degree of north latitude, and from the 130th to the 147th of east longitude. The chief town is Jeddo, in the 141st degree of east longitude, and the 36th of north latitude.

The soil and productions of the country are pretty much the same with those of China; and the inhabitants are famous for their lacker ware, known by the name of Japan. The islands themselves are very innaccessible, through their high rocks and tempestuous seas: they are subject to earthquakes, and have some volcanos. I have already mentioned the circumstance of the Dutch expelling the Portuguese from this gainful trade. The Japanese themselves are the grossest of all idolators, and so irreconcileable to Christianity, that it is commonly said the Dutch, who are the only European people with whom they now trade, pretend themselves to be no Christians, and humour the Japanese in the most absurd superstitions. Notwithstanding all this compliance, the natives are very shy and rigorous in all their dealings with the Dutch; and Nagasacci, in the island of Dezima, is the only place where they are suffered to trade. The complexions of the Japanese are in general yellowish, although some few, chiefly women, are almost white. Their narrow eyes, and high eye-brows, are like those of the Chinese and Tartars; and their noses are short and thick. Their hair is universally black; and such a sameness of fashion reigns throughout this whole empire, that the head-dress is the same from the emperor to the peasant. The fashion of their clothes has also remained the same from very high antiquity. They consist of one or more loose gowns, tied about the middle with a sash. People of rank have them made of silk, but the lower class of cotton stuffs. Women generally wear a greater number of them than men, and much longer, and have them more ornamented, often with gold or silver flowers woven into the stuff. Their houses are built with upright posts, crossed and wattled with bamboo, plaistered both without and within, and white-washed. They generally have two stories; but the uppermost is low, and seldom inhabited. The roofs are covered with pantiles, large and heavy, but neatly made. The floors are elevated two feet from the ground, and covered with planks, on which mats are laid. They have no furniture in their rooms; neither tables, chairs, stools, benches, cupboards, or even beds. Their custom is to sit down on their heels upon the mats, which are always soft and clean. Their victuals are served up to them on a low board, raised but a few inches from the floor, and one dish only at a time. Mirrors they have, but never fix them up in their houses as ornamental furnature; they are made of a compound metal, and used only at their toilets. Notwithstanding the severity of their winters, which obliges them to warm their houses from November to March, they have neither fireplaces nor stoves; instead of these they use large copper pots standing upon legs. These are lined on the inside with loam, on which ashes are laid to some depth, and charcoal lighted upon them, which seems to be prepared in some manner which renders the fumes of it not at all dangerous. The first compliment offered to a stranger, in their houses, is a dish of tea, and a pipe of tobacco. Fans are used by both sexes equally; and are, within or without doors, their inseparable companions. The whole nation are naturally cleanly; every house, whether public or private, has a bath, of which constant and daily use is made by the whole family. Obedience to parents, and respect to superiors, are the characteristics of this nation. Their salutations and conversations between equals abound also with civility and politeness; to this children are early ac-

customed

customed by the example of their parents. Their penal laws are very severe; but punishments are seldom inflicted. Perhaps there is no country where fewer crimes against society are committed. Commerce and manufactures flourish here, though, as these people have few wants, they are not carried to the extent which we see in Europe. Agriculture is so well understood, that the whole country, even to the tops of the hills, is cultivated. They trade with no foreigners but the Dutch and Chinese, and in both cases with companies of privileged merchants.—Besides the sugars, spices, and manufactured goods, which the Dutch send to Japan, they carry thither annually upwards of 200,000 deer skins, and more than 100,000 hides, the greatest part of which they get from Siam, where they pay for them in money. The merchandise they export from these islands, both for Bengal and Europe, consist in 9000 chests of copper, each weighing 120 pounds, and from 25,000 to 30,000 weight of camphor. Their profits on imports and exports are valued at 40 or 45 per cent. As the Dutch company do not pay duty in Japan, either on their exports or imports, they send an annual present to the emperor, consisting of cloth, chintz, succotas, cottons, stuffs, and trinkets.

The LADRONE ISLANDS, of which the chief town is said to be Guam, east longitude 140, north latitude 14: they are about twelve in number. The people took their name from their pilfering qualities. We know nothing of them worth a particular mention, excepting that lord Anson landed upon one of them (Tinian), where he found great refreshment for himself and his crew.

FORMOSA is likewise an oriental island. It is situated to the east of China, near the province of Fo-kien, and is divided into two parts by a chain of mountains, which runs through the middle, beginning at the south coast, and ending at the north. This is a very fine island, and abounds with all the necessaries of life. That part of the island which lies to the west of the mountains, belongs to the Chinese, who consider the inhabitants of the eastern parts as savages, though they are said to be a very inoffensive people. The inhabitants of the cultivated parts are the same with the Chinese, already described. The Chinese have likewise made themselves masters of several other islands in these seas, of which we scarcely know the names; that of Ainan is between sixty and seventy leagues long, and between fifty and sixty in breadth, and but twelve miles from the province of Canton. The original inhabitants are a shy, cowardly people, and live in the most unwholesome part of the island; the coast, and cultivated parts, which are very valuable, being possessed by the Chinese.

The PHILIPPINES, of which there are 1100 in number, lying in the Chinese Sea (part of the Pacific Ocean) 300 miles south-east of China, of which Manilla, or Luconia, the chief, is 4000 miles long and 200 broad. The inhabitants consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malays, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Mesties, a mixture of all these. The property of the islands belongs to the king of Spain, they having been discovered by Magellan, and afterwards conquered by the Spaniards, in the reign of Philip II, from whom they take their name. Their situation is such, between the eastern and western continents, that the inhabitants trade with Mexico and Peru, as well as with all the islands and places of the East Indies. Two ships from Acapulco, in Mexico, carry on this commerce for the Spaniards, who make 400 per cent. profit. The country is fruitful in all the necessaries of life, and beautiful to the eye. Venison of all kinds, buffaloes, hogs, sheep, goats, and a particular large species of monkies, are found here in great plenty. The nest of the bird saligan affords that dissolving jelly, which is so voluptuous a rarity at European tables. Many European fruits and flowers thrive surprisingly in these islands. If a sprig of an orange or lemon tree is planted here, it becomes within the year a fruit-bearing tree; so that the verdure and luxuriancy of the soil are almost incredible. The tree amet supplies the natives with water; and there is also a kind of cane, which, if cut, yields fair water enough for a draught, of which there is plenty in the mountains, where water is most wanted.

The city of Manilla contains about 3000 inhabitants; its port is Cavite, lying at the distance of three leagues, and defended by the castle of St. Philip. In the year 1762, Manilla was reduced by the English under general Draper and admiral Cornish, who took it by storm, and humanely suffered the archbishop, who was the Spanish viceroy at the same time, to ransom the place for about a million sterling. The bargain, however, was ungenerously disowned by him and the court of Spain, so that great part of the ransom is still unpaid. The Spanish government is settled there, but the Indian inhabitants pay a capitation tax. The other islands, particularly Midanao, the largest next to Manilla, are governed by petty princes of their own, whom they call sultans. The sultan of Midanao is a Mahometan.

Upon the whole, though these islands are enriched with all the profusion of nature, yet they are subject to most dreadful earthquakes, thunder, rains, and lightning; and the soil is pestered with many noxious and venomous creatures, and even herbs and flowers, whose poisons kill almost instantaneously. Some of their mountains are volcanos.

The MOLUCCAS, commonly called the SPICE or CLOVE ISLANDS. These are not out of sight of each other, and lie all within the compass of twenty-five leagues to the south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between one degree south, and two north latitude. They are in number five, viz. Bachian, Machian, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydore. These islands produce neither corn nor rice, so that the inhabitants live upon a bread made of sagoe. Their chief produce consists of cloves, mace, and nutmegs, in vast quantities; which are monopolized by the Dutch with so much jealousy, that they destroy the plants, lest the natives should sell the supernumerary spices to other nations. These islands, after being subject to various powers, are now governed by three kings, subordinate to the Dutch. Ternate is the largest of these islands, though not more than thirty miles in circumference. The Dutch have here a fort called Victoria; and another called Fort Orange, in Machian.

The BANDA, or NUTMEG ISLANDS are situated between 127 and 128 degrees east longitude, and between four and five south latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor, the chief town of which is Lantor, Polerong, Rosinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. The chief forts belonging to the Dutch on these islands, are those of Revenge and Nassau. The nutmeg, covered with mace, grows on these islands only, and they are entirely subject to the Dutch. In several islands that lie near Banda and Amboyna, the nutmeg and clove would grow, because, as naturalists tell us, birds, especially doves and pigeons, swallow the nutmeg and clove whole, and void them in the same state; which is one of the reasons why the Dutch declare war against both birds in their wild plantations. The great nutmeg harvest is in June and August.

AMBOYNA. This island, taken in a large sense, is one, and the most considerable, of the Moluccas, which, in fact, it commands. It is situated in the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, between the third and fourth degree of ſouth latitude, and 120 leagues to the eaſtward of Batavia. Amboyna is about ſeventy miles in circumference, and defended by a Dutch garriſon of 7 or 800 men, beſides ſmall forts, which protect their clove plantations. It is well known, that when the Portugueſe were driven off this Iſland, the trade of it was carried on by the Engliſh and Dutch; and the barbarities of the latter in firſt torturing and then murdering the Engliſh, and thereby engroſſing the whole trade, and that of Banda, can never be forgotten; but will be tranſmitted as a memorial of Dutch infamy at that period, to all poſterity. This tragical event happened in 1622.

The iſland of CELEBES, or MACASSAR, is ſituated under the equator, between the Iſland of Borneo and the Spice Iſlands, at the diſtance of 160 leagues from Batavia, and is 500 miles long, and 200 broad. This iſland, notwithſtanding its heat, is rendered habitable by breezes from the north, and periodical rains. Its chief products are pepper and opium; and the natives are expert in the ſtudy of poiſons, with a variety of which nature hath furniſhed them. The Dutch have a fortification on this iſland; but the internal part of it is governed by three kings, the chief of whom reſides in the town of Macaſſar. In this, and indeed in almoſt all the oriental iſlands, the inhabitants live in houſes built on large poſts, which are acceſſible only by ladders, which they pull up in the night-time, for their ſecurity againſt venomous animals. They are ſaid to be hoſpitable and faithful, if not provoked. They carry on a large trade with the Chineſe. Their port of Jampoden is the moſt capacious of any in that part of the world.

The Dutch have likewiſe fortified GILORO and CERAM, two other ſpice iſlands lying under the equator, and will ſink any ſhips that attempt to traffic in thoſe ſeas.

The SUNDA ISLANDS. Theſe are ſituated in the Indian ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of eaſt longitude, and between eight degrees north, and eight degrees ſouth latitude, comprehending the iſlands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, Banca, &c. The three firſt, from their great extent and importance, require to be ſeparately deſcribed.

BORNEO is ſaid to be 800 miles long, and 700 broad, and is therefore thought to be the largeſt iſland in the world. The inland part of the country is marſhy and unhealthy; and the inhabitants live in towns built upon floats in the middle of the rivers. The ſoil produces rice, cotton, canes, pepper, camphor, the tropical fruits, gold, and excellent diamonds. The famous ouran-outang, one of which was diſſected by Dr. Tyſon at Oxford, is a native of this country, and is thought, of all irrational beings, to reſemble a man the moſt. The original inhabitants are ſaid to live in the mountains, and make uſe of poiſoned darts; but the ſea-coaſt is governed by Mahometan princes; the chief port of this iſland is Benjar-Maſſeen, and carries on a commerce with all trading nations.

SUMATRA has Malacca on the north, Borneo on the eaſt, and Java on the ſouth-eaſt, from which it is ſeparated by the ſtraits of Sunda; it is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending five degrees and upwards, north-weſt of it, and five on the ſouth-eaſt; and is 1000 miles long, and 100 broad. This iſland produces ſo much gold, that it is thought to be the Ophir * mentioned in the ſcriptures; but Mr. Marſden, in his late hiſtory of the iſland, thinks it was unknown to the ancients.—

* There is a mountain in the iſland which is called Ophir by the Europeans, whoſe ſummit, above the level of the ſea, is 13,842 feet, exceeding in height the Peak of Teneriff by 577 feet.

Its chief trade with the Europeans lies in pepper. The Engliſh Eaſt India Company have two ſettlements here, Bencoolen, and Fort Marlborough; from whence they bring their chief cargoes of pepper. The king of Achen is the chief of the Mahometan princes who poſſeſs the ſea-coaſts. The interior parts are governed by pagan princes; and the natural products of Sumatra are pretty much the ſame with thoſe of the adjacent iſlands.

Rain is very frequent here; ſometimes very heavy, and almoſt always attended with thunder and lightning. Earthquakes are not uncommon, and there are ſeveral volcanos on the iſland. The people who inhabit the coaſt are Malays, who came hither from the peninſula of Malacca; but the interior parts are inhabited by a very different people, and who have hitherto had no connection with the Europeans. Their language and character differ much from thoſe of the Malays; the latter uſing the Arabic character. The people between the diſtricts of the Engliſh company, and thoſe of the Dutch at Palimban, on the other ſide of the iſland, write on long narrow ſlips of the bark of a tree, with a piece of bamboo. They begin at the bottom, and write from the left hand to the right, contrary to the cuſtom of other eaſtern nations. Theſe inhabitants of the interior parts of Sumatra are a free people, and live in ſmall villages, called Dooſans, independent of each other, and governed each by its own chief. All of them have laws, ſome written ones, by which they puniſh offenders, and terminate diſputes. They have almoſt all of them, and particularly the women, large ſwellings in the throat, ſome nearly as big as a man's head, but in general as big as an oſtrich's egg, like the goitres of the Alps. That part of this iſland which is called the Caſſia country, is well inhabited by a people called Battas, who differ from all the other inhabitants of Sumatra in language, manners, and cuſtoms. They have no king, but live in villages, independently of each other, and generally at variance with one another. They fortify their villages very ſtrongly with double fences of camphor, plank-pointed, and placed with their points projecting outwards; and between theſe fences they place pieces of bamboo, hardened by fire, and likewiſe pointed, which are concealed by the graſs, but which will run quite through a man's foot. Such of their enemies whom they take priſoners, they put to death and eat; and their ſkulls they hang up as trophies, in the houſes where the unmarried men and boys eat and ſleep.—They allow of polygamy: a man may purchaſe as many wives as he pleaſes; but their number ſeldom exceeds eight. All their wives live in the ſame houſe with the huſband, and the houſes have no partition; but each wife has her ſeparate fire place. It is from this country that moſt of the caſſia ſent to Europe is produced. The caſſia tree grows to fifty or ſixty feet, with a ſtem of about two feet in diameter, and a beautiful and regular ſpreading head. Within about ninety miles of Sumatra is the iſland of ENGANHO, which is very little known, on account of the terrible rocks and breakers which entirely ſurround it. It is inhabited by naked ſavages, who are tall and well made, and who generally appear armed with lances and clubs, and ſpeak a different language from the inhabitants of any of the neighbouring iſlands.

The greateſt part of JAVA belongs to the Dutch, who have here erected a kind of commercial monarchy, the capital of which is Batavia, a noble and populous city, lying in the latitude of ſix degrees ſouth, at the mouth of the river Jucata, and furniſhed with one of the fineſt harbours in the world. The town itſelf is built in the manner of thoſe in Holland, and is about a league and a half in circumference, with five gates, and ſurrounded by regular fortifications; but its ſuburbs are ſaid to be ten times more populous than itſelf. The government here is a mixture of eaſtern magnificence and European police, and held by the Dutch governor-general of the Indies. When he appears abroad, he is attended by his guards and officers, and with a ſplendor ſuperior to that of any European potentate, except upon ſome ſolemn occaſions. This city is as beautiful as it is ſtrong; and its fine canals, bridges, and avenues, render it a moſt agreeable reſidence. The deſcription of it, its government, and public edifices, have employed whole volumes. The citadel, where the governor has his palace, commands the town and the ſuburbs, which are inhabited by natives of almoſt every nation in the world; the Chineſe reſiding in this iſland are computed at 100,000; but about 30,000 of that nation were barbarouſly maſſacred, without the ſmalleſt offence ever proved upon them, in 1740. This maſſacre was too unprovoked and deteſtable, to be defended even by the Dutch, who, when the governor arrived in Europe, ſent him back to be tried at Batavia; but he never has been heard of ſince. A Dutch garriſon of 3000 men conſtantly reſides at Batavia, and about 15,000 troops are quartered in the iſland and the neighbourhood of the city.

The ANDAMAN and NICOBAR Iſlands. Theſe iſlands lie at the entrance of the Bay of Bengal, and furniſh proviſions, conſiſting of tropical fruits and other neceſſaries, for the ſhips that touch there. They are otherwiſe too inconſiderable to be mentioned. They are inhabited by a harmleſs, inoffenſive, but idolatrous people.

CEYLON. This iſland, though not the largeſt, is thought to be by nature, the richeſt and fineſt iſland in the world. It is ſituated in the Indian Ocean, near Cape Comorin; the ſouthern extremity of the Hither Peninſula of India being ſeparated from the coaſt of Coromandel by a narrow ſtrait; and is 250 miles long, and 200 broad. The natives call it, with ſome ſhow of reaſon, the terreſtrial paradiſe; and it produces, beſides excellent fruits of all kinds, long pepper, fine cotton, ivory, ſilk, tobacco, ebony, muſk, cryſtal, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, lead, iron, ſteel, copper; beſides cinnamon, gold, and ſilver, and all kinds of precious ſtones, except diamonds. All kinds of fowl and fiſh abound here. Every part of the iſland is well wooded and watered; and beſides ſome curious animals peculiar to itſelf, it has plenty of cows, buffalos, goats, hogs, deer, hares, dogs, and other quadrupeds. The Ceylon elephant is preferred to all others, eſpecially if ſpotted: but ſeveral noxious animals, ſuch as ſerpents and ants, are likewiſe found here. The chief commodity of the iſland is its cinnamon, which is by far the beſt in all Aſia. Though its trees grow in great profuſion, yet the beſt is found in the neighbourhood of Columbo, the chief ſettlement of the Dutch, and Negambo. The middle of the country is mountainous and woody, ſo that the rich and beautiful vallies are left in the poſſeſſion of the Dutch, who have in a manner ſhut up the king in his capital city, Candy, which ſtands on a mountain in the middle of the iſland, ſo that he has ſcarcely any communication with other nations, or any property in the riches of his own dominions. The deſcendants of the ancient inhabitants are called Cinglaſſes, who, though idolators, value themſelves upon maintaining their ancient laws and cuſtoms. They are, in general, a ſober, inoffenſive people, and are mingled with Moors, Malabars, Portugueſe, and Dutch.

It may be here proper to obſerve, that the cinnamon-tree, which is a native of this iſland, has two, if not three barks, which form the true cinnamon; the trees of a middling growth and age afford the beſt; and the body of the tree, which, when ſtripped, is white, ſerves for building and other uſes. In 1656, the Dutch were invited by the natives of this delicious iſland to defend them againſt the Portugueſe, whom they expelled, and have monopolized it ever ſince to themſelves. Indeed, in January 1782, Trincomale, the chief ſea-port of the iſland, was taken by the Engliſh, but ſoon afterwards retaken by the French, and reſtored to the Dutch by the laſt treaty of peace.

The MALDIVES. Theſe are a vaſt cluſter of ſmall iſlands or little rocks juſt above the water, lying between the equator and eight degrees north latitude, near Cape Comorin. They are chiefly reſorted to by the Dutch, who drive on a profitable trade with the natives for couries, a kind of ſmall ſhells, which go, or rather formerly went, for money upon the coaſts of Guinea and other parts of Africa. The cocoa of the Maldives is an excellent commodity in a medicinal capacity. "Of this tree (ſays a well-informed author) they build veſſels of twenty or thirty tons; their hulls, maſts, ſails, rigging, anchors, cables, proviſions, and firing, are all from this uſeful tree."

We have already mentioned BOMBAY, on the Malabar coaſt, in ſpeaking of India. With regard to the language of all the Oriental iſlands, nothing certain can be ſaid. Each iſland has a particular tongue; but the Malayan, Chineſe, Portugueſe, Dutch, and Indian words, are ſo frequent among them, that it is difficult for an European, who is not very expert in thoſe matters, to know the radical language. The ſame may be almoſt ſaid of their religion; for though its original is certainly Pagan, yet it is intermixed with many Mahometan, Jewiſh, Chriſtian, and other foreign ſuperſtitions.

The ſea which ſeparates the ſouthern point of the peninſula of Kamtſchatka from Japan, contains a number of iſlands in a poſition from north-north-eaſt to ſouth-ſouth-weſt, which are called the KURILE ISLANDS. They are upwards of twenty in number, are all mountainous, and in ſeveral of them are volcanos and hot ſprings. The principal of theſe iſlands are inhabited; but ſome of the little ones are entirely deſert and unpeopled. They differ much from each other, in reſpect both to their ſituation and natural conſtitution. The foreſts in the more northern ones are compoſed of laryx and pines; thoſe to the ſouthern produce canes, bamboos, vines, &c. In ſome of them are bears and foxes. The ſea-otter appears on the coaſts of all theſe iſlands, as well as whales, ſea-horſes, ſeals, and other amphibious animals. Some of the inhabitants of theſe iſlands have a great likeneſs to the Japaneſe, in their manners, language, and perſonal appearance; others very much reſemble the Kamtſchadales. The northern iſlands acknowledge the ſovereignty of the empire of Ruſſia; but thoſe to the ſouth pay homage to Japan. The Kurilians diſcover much humanity and probity in their conduct, and are courteous and hoſpitable; but adverſity renders them timid, and prompts them to ſuicide. They have a particular veneration for old age. They reverence an old man whoever he be, but have an eſpecial affection for thoſe of their reſpective families. Their language is agreeable to the ear, and they ſpeak and pronounce it ſlowly. The men are employed in hunting, fiſhing for ſea animals and whales, and catching fowl. Their canoes are made of the wood that their foreſts produce, or that the ſea caſts upon their ſhores. The women have charge of the kitchen, and make clothes. In the northern iſles they ſew, and make different cloths of the thread of nettles. The ſouthern iſlanders are more refined and poliſhed than the northern, and carry on a ſort of commerce with Japan, whither they export whale-oil, furs, and eagles' feathers to fledge arrows with. In return, they bring Japaneſe utenſils of metal and varniſhed wood, ſkillers, ſabres, different ſtuffs, ornaments of luxury and parade, tobacco, all ſorts of trinkets, and ſmall wares.

AFRICA,

AFRICA.

AFRICA, the third grand division of the globe, is generally represented as bearing some resemblance to the form of a pyramid, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean; and the point or top of the pyramid, the Cape of Good Hope. Africa is a peninsula of a prodigious extent, joined to Asia only by a neck of land, about sixty miles over, between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, usually called the Isthmus of Suez; and its utmost length from north to south, from Cape Bona in the Mediterranean, in 37 degrees north, to the Cape of Good Hope in 34-7 south latitude, is 4,300 miles; and the broadest part from Cape Verd, in 17-20 deg. W. lon. to Cape Guardasui, near the straits of Babel-Mandel, in 51-20 east longitude, is 3,500 miles from east to west. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, which separates it from Europe; on the east by the Istmus of Suez, the Red sea, and the Indian Ocean, which divides from Asia; on the south by the Southern Ocean; and on the west by the great Atlantic Ocean, which separates it from America. As the equator divides this extensive country almost in the middle, and the far greatest part of it is within the tropics, the heat is in many places almost insupportable to an European; it being there increased by the rays of the sun, from vast deserts of burning sands. The coasts, however, and banks of rivers, such as the Nile, are generally fertile; and most parts of this region are inhabited, though it is far from being so populous as Europe and Asia. From what has been said, the reader cannot expect to find here a variety of climates. In many parts of Africa, snow seldom falls in the plains; and it is generally never found but on the tops of the highest mountains. The natives in these scorching regions would as soon expect that marble should melt, and flow in liquid streams, as that water by freezing should lose its fluidity, be arrested by the cold, and, ceasing to flow, become like the solid rock.

The most considerable rivers in Africa, are the Niger, which falls into the Atlantic or western ocean at Senegal, after a course of 2800 miles*. It increases

* This is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to ascertain. For (according to Mr. Lucas's communications to the African Association) both the rise and termination of the Niger are unkown, but the course is from east to west. So great is its rapidity, that no vessel can ascend its stream: and such is the want of skill, or such the absence of commercial inducements among the nations who inhabit its borders, that even with the current, neither vessels nor boats are seen to navigate. In one place, indeed, the traveller finds accomodations for the passage of himself and his goods; but even there, though the ferrymen, by the indulgence of the sultan of Cashna, are exempted from all taxes, the boat which contains the merchandize is nothing more than an ill-constructed raft, for the planks are fastened to the timbers with ropes, and the seams are closed, both within and without, by plaister of tough clay, of which a large provision is always carried on the raft, for the purpose of excluding the stream wherever its entrance is observed.

The depth of the river at the place of passage, which is more than a hundred miles to the south of the city of Cashna, the capital of the empire of that name, is estimated at twenty-three or twenty-four feet English.

Its width is such, that even at the island of Gongoo, where the ferrymen reside, the sound of the loudest voice fsom the northern shore is scarcely heard; and at Tombuetou, where the name of Gnewa, or black, is given to the stream, the width is described

III.
SPAIN
Str. of Gibraltar
Gibraltar
Algiers
Tunis
ALGIERS
Madeira I.
CANARY
ISLES
Ferro
Canary
Mazagan
Saffi
Fez
Morocco
Trefana
Santa Cruz
Tafilet
Tatta
Nun
Acha
BARBARY
TAFILET
C. Bajador
Roaches B.
R. del Oro
Tuggurt
Wergela
Taudeny
TERGA
TABOO
Tebelbelt
ZAHARA OR THE DE
ZENHAGA
C. de los Barbas
C. Carvoeiro
C. Blanco
Arguin
Arooan
Tombuctoo
TOMBUCTOO
CAPE VERD
C. Mirik
Ft. Penia
St. Jago
Brava
ISLES
C. Verd
I. Goree
JALOFS
Ft. St. Louis
FOULIS
Medina
Gallam
Gonjah
GONJAH
Degomba
KAFFABA
Kaffaba
Kombah
NEGRO
CASHNA
Cashnah
DOMBOO
Domboo
Nykee
Kottokolee
Isles & Sands of Bissagos
C. Verga
Siera Leona
Siera Leona R.
C. St. Ann
English I.
St. Anns R.
Galinhas R.
Songo
TONOUWAH
Affentai
GUINEA
Slave Coast
DAHOMY
Benin
BENIN
BIAFARA
Biafara
Grain Coast
Ivory Coast
Gold Coast
Jingiro
Calbongos
Cape Lopo
Sestos R.
C. Monte
Sanguin
Ballaway
Drewin
Fredericksburg
Cape Coast Castle
Ft. Christiansburg
C. Formosa
I. Fernando Po
Princes I.
I. St. Thomas
I. St. Matthew
Annaboa I.
C. Lopo
Campo R.
Gabon or Ponga
Amboes
Setti
LOANGO
Salvador
Quilla R.
Cacongo
Angoy
R. Zaire
CONGO
Loanda
C. Ledo
ANGO
Benguela
Ft. Cabuto
C. St. Fel de Benguela
BENGU
Angra do Maria
B. das Aldeas
C. das Mocas
C. Negro
C. Ruy Pi
C. Frio
A Savage People
MATA
MAN
Bay St. Ambrose
C. da Sierra
Angrado
C. St. Thomas
C. das Voltas
Morios de Piedra
Elephants
Lucia
Saldana
Table
C. of Good
ETHIOPIAN
SEA
Ascension I.
St. Helena I.
Dos Picos
ATLANTIC OCEAN
SOUTHERN
West Longitude
20
10
0
10
30
20
10
0
10
20
30

AFRICA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.
SPAIN
NATOLIA
ASIA
ARABIA
BARBARY
ZAHARA OR THE DESART
NEGROLAND
GUINEA
ETHIOPIA
BORNOU
NUBIA
ABYSSINIA
ADEL
AJAN
MAGADOXA
MONOMOTAPA
MADAGASCAR
HOTTENTOTS
CONGO
ANGOLA
BENGUELA
LOANGO
BENIN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
ETHIOPIAN SEA
INDIAN OCEAN
SOUTHERN OCEAN
Tropic of Cancer
Equinoctial Line
Tropic of Capricorn
Madeira I.
CANARY ISLES
CAPE VERD ISLES
Ascension I.
St. Helena I.
Dos Picos
C. of Good Hope
Mauritius I.
Bourbon I.
St. John of Lisbon
Mecca
Aleppo
Jerusalem
Cairo
Tombuctoo
West Longitude
Degrees E. from London.

increases and decreases as the Nile, fertilises the country, and has grains of gold in many parts of it. The Gambia and Senegal are only branches of this river. The Nile, which, dividing Egypt into two parts, discharges itself into the Mediterranean, after a prodigious course from its source in Abyssinia. The most considerable mountains in Africa are the Atlas, a ridge extending from the western ocean, to which it gives the name of Atlantic Ocean, as far as Egypt, and had its name from a king of Mauritania, a great lover of astronomy, who used to observe the stars from its summit; on which account the poets represent him as bearing the heavens on his shoulders. The Mountains of the Moon, extending themselves between Abyssinia and Monomotapa, and are still higher than those of Atlas. Those of Sierra Leona, or the Mountain of the Lions, which divide Nigritia from Guinea, and extend as far as Ethiopia. These were styled by the ancients the Mountains of God, on account of their being subject to thunder and lightning. The Peak of Teneriffe, which the Dutch make their first meridian, is about two miles high, in the form of a sugar-loaf, and is situated on an island of the same name near the coast. The most noted capes or promontories, in this country, are Cape Verd, so called, because the land is always covered with green trees and mossy ground. It is the most westerly point of the continent of Africa. The Cape of Good Hope, so denominated by the Portuguese, when they first went round it in 1489, and discovered the passage to Asia. It is the south extremity of Africa, in the country of the Hottentots; at present in the possession of the Dutch, and the general rendezvous of ships of every nation who trade to India, being about half way from Europe. There is but one strait in Africa, which is called Babel-Mandel, and joins the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

The situation of Africa for commerce is extremely favourable, standing as it were in the centre of the globe, and having thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any of the other quarters has with the rest. That it abounds with gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, the English, and the French, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but that of the most authentic historians. It is, however, the misfortune of Africa, that, though it has 10,000 miles of the sea-coast, with noble, large, deep rivers, it should have no navigation, nor recive any benefit from them; and that it should be inhabited by an innumerable people, ignorant of commerce, and of each other. At the mouths of these rivers are the most excellent harbours, deep, safe, calm, and sheltered from the wind, and capable of being made perfectly secure by fortifications; but quite destitute of shipping, trade, and merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandise. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful, as well as convenient, within itself, seems to be almost entirely neglected, not only by the natives, who are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them, but also by the

as being that of the Thames at Westminster. In the rainy season it swells above its banks, and not only floods the adjacent lands, but often sweeps before it the cattle and cottages of the short-sighted, or too confident inhabitants.

That the people who live in the neighbourhood of the Niger should refuse to profit by its navigation, may justly surprise the traveller; but much greater is his astonishment, when he finds that even the food which the bounty of the stream would give, is uselessly offered to their acceptance; for such is the want of skill, or such the settled dislike of the people to this sort of provision, that the fish with which the river abounds, are left in undisturbed possession of its waters.

Proceedings of the African Association, p. 183—189.

more civilised Europeans who are settled in it, particularly the Portuguese.

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. The kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia, in particular, were much celebrated; and the rich and powerful state of Carthage, that once formidable rival to Rome itself, extended her commerce to every part of the then known world; even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, who was king of Mauritania, but tributary to the republic of Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, with the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and, by degrees, all the neighbouring kingdoms and states. After this the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, who contributed still more to the destruction of arts and sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary, in the seventh century. These were succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mahometan religion, whose professors carried desolation with them wherever they came, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

The inhabitants of this continent with respect to religion, may be divided into three sorts; namely, Pagans, Mahometans, and Christians. The first are the more numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country, from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope; and these are generally black. The Mahometans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess Egypt, and almost all the northern shores of Africa, or what is called the Barbary coast. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain many Pagan and Jewish rites. There are also some Jews on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is possessed of.

There are scarcely any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, who agree in the modern divisions of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarcely any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country; and consequently we must acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of several of the inland nations, which may be still reckoned among the unknown and undiscovered parts of the world; but, according to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be divided according to the following table:

Barbary,

	Nations.	Length.	Bread.	Square Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. and bearing fr. London.	Diff. of time from London.	Religions.
Barbary.	Morocco, Tafilet, &c.	500	480	219,400	Fez	1080 S.	0 24 aft.	Mahom.
Barbary.	Algiers	480	100	143,600	Algiers	920 S.	0 13 bef.	Mahom.
Barbary.	Tunis	220	170	54,400	Tunis	990 SE.	0 39 bef.	Mahom.
Barbary.	Tripoli	700	240	75,000	Tripoli	1260 SE.	0 56 bef.	Mahom.
Barbary.	Barca	400	300	66,400	Polemeta	1440 SE.	1 26 bef.	Mahom.
	Egypt	600	250	140,700	Grand Cairo	1920 SE.	2 21 bef.	Mahom.
	Biledulgerid	2500	350	485,000	Dara	1565 S.	0 32 aft.	Pagans
	Zaara	3400	660	739,200	Tegessa	1800 S.	0 24 aft.	Pagans
	Negroland	2200	840	1,026,000	Madinga	2500 S.	0 38 aft.	Pagans
	Guinea	1800	360	510,000	Benin	2700 S.	0 20 bef.	Pagans
Up. Ethiopia.	Nubia	940	600	264,000	Nubia	2418 SE.	2 12 bef	Mah. & P.
Up. Ethiopia.	Abyssinia	900	800	378,000	Gondar	288[illegible] SE.	2 20 bef.	Christian
Up. Ethiopia.	Abex	540	130	160,000	Doncala	3580 SE.	2 36 bef.	Ch. & Pag.
The middle parts, called Lower Ethiopia, are very little known to the Europeans, but are computed at 1,200,000 square miles.								
	Loango	410	300	49,400	Loango	3300 S.	0 44 bef.	Ch. & Pag.
Lower Guinea.	Congo	540	420	172,800	St. Salvador	3480 S.	1 0 bef.	Ch. & Pag.
Lower Guinea.	Angola	360	250	38,400	Loando	3750 S.	0 58 bef.	Ch. & Pag.
Lower Guinea.	Benguela	430	180	64,000	Benguela	3900 S.	0 58 bef.	Pagans
Lower Guinea.	Mataman	450	240	144,000	No Towns	* * *	* *	Pagans
	Ajan	900	300	234,000	Brava	3702 SE.	2 40 bef.	Pagans
	Zanguebar	1400	350	275,000	Melinda, or Mozambiq.	4440 SE.	2 38 bef.	Pagans
	Monopotapa	960	660	222,500	Monomotap	4500 S.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Monemugi	900	660	310,000	Chicova	4260 S.	1 44 bef.	Pagans
	Sofola	480	300	97,000	Sofola	4600 SE.	1 18 bef.	Pagans
	Terra de Nat.	600	350	184,900	No Towns	* * *	* * *	Pagans
	Caffraria, or Hottentot	708	660	200,340	Cape of G. Hope	5200 S.	1 4 bef.	Most stupid Pag.

The principal islands of Africa lie in the Indian Seas and Atlantic Ocean; of which the following belong to, or trade with the Europeans, and serve to refresh their shipping to and from India:

Islands.	Sq. M.	Towns.	Trade with, or belong to
Babel Mandel, at the entrance of the Red Sea —		Babel Mandel	All Nations
Zocotra, in the Indian Ocean	3,600	Calausia —	Ditto
The Comora Isles, ditto	1,000	Joanna —	Ditto
Madagascar, ditto —	168,000	St. Austin —	Ditto
Mauritius, ditto —	1,840	Mauritius —	French
Bourbon, ditto —	2,100	Bourbon —	Ditto
St. Helena, in the Atlantic Ocean		St. Helena —	English
Ascension, ditto —			Uninhabited
St. Matthew, ditto —			Ditto
St. Thomas, Anaboa, Princes-island, Fernandopo } ditto		St. Thomas Anaboa	Portuguese
Cape Verd Islands, ditto	2,000	St. Domingo —	Ditto
Goree, ditto —		Fort St. Michael	French
Canaries, ditto —		Palma, St. Christopher	Spanish
Madeiras ditto —	1,500	Santa Cruz, Funchal	Portuguese
The Azores, or Western Isles, lie nearly at an equal distance from Europe, Africa, and America } ditto	2,000	Angra, St. Michael	Ditto

Having given the reader ſome idea of Africa, in general, with the principal kingdoms, and their ſuppoſed dimenſions, we ſhall now conſider it under the three grand diviſions; firſt, Egypt; ſecondly, the ſtates of Barbary, ſtretching along the coaſt of the Mediterranean, from Egypt in the eaſt, to the Atlantic Ocean, weſt; and laſtly, that part of Africa, between the tropic of Cancer and the Cape of Good Hope; the laſt of theſe diviſions, indeed, is vaſtly greater than the other two; but the nations which it contains are ſo little known, and ſo barbarous, and, like all barbarous nations, ſo ſimilar in moſt reſpects to one another, that they may, without impropriety, be thrown under one general head.

EGYPT.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	600	between	20 and 32 north latitude.	140,700
Breadth	250		28 and 36 eaſt longitude.	

Boundaries.] It is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, North; by the Red Sea, Eaſt; by Abyſſinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, on the South; and by the Deſert of Barca, and the unknown parts of Africa, Weſt.

Diviſions.	Subdiviſions.	Chief towns.
Northern diviſion contains	Lower Egypt	Grand Cairo, E. long. 32. N. lat. 30. Bulac Alexandria Roſetto Damietta
Southern diviſion contains	Upper Egypt	Sayd, or Thebes Coſſiar.

Air.] It is obſerved by M. Volney, that during 8 months in the year (from March to November) the heat is almoſt inſupportable by an European. "During the whole of this ſeaſon, the air is inflamed, the ſky ſparkling, and the heat oppreſſive to all unaccuſtomed to it."—The other months are more temperate. The ſoutherly winds which ſometimes blow in Egypt, are by the natives called *poiſonous* winds, or the *hot winds of the Deſert*. They are of ſuch extreme heat and aridity, that no animated body expoſed to them can withſtand their fatal influence. During the three days which it generally laſts, the ſtreets are deſerted; and woe to the traveller whom this wind ſurpriſes remote from ſhelter: when it exceeds three days, it is inſupportable. Very frequently the inhabitants are almoſt blinded with drifts of ſand. Theſe evils are remedied by the riſing and overflowing of the Nile.

Soil and produce.] Whoever is in the leaſt acquainted with literature, knows that the vaſt fertility of Egypt is not owing to rain (little falling in that country) but to the annual overflowing of the Nile. It begins to riſe when the ſun is vertical in Ethiopia; and he annual rains fall there, viz. from the latter end of May to September, and ſometimes

October. At the height of its flood in the Lower Egypt, nothing is to be seen in the plains, but the tops of forests and fruit-trees, their towns and villages being built upon eminences either natural or artificial. When the river is at its proper height, the inhabitants celebrate a kind of jubilee, with all sorts of festivities. The banks or mounds which confine it are cut by the Turkish basha, attended by his grandees; but according to captain Norden, who was present on the occasion, the spectacle is not very magnificent. When the banks are cut, the water is led into what they call the Chalis, or grand canal, which runs through Cairo, from whence it is distributed into cuts, for supplying their fields and gardens. This being done, and the waters beginning to retire, such is the fertility of the soil, that the labour of the husbandman is next to nothing. He throws his wheat and barley into the ground in October and May. He turns his cattle out to graze in November, and in about six weeks, nothing can be more charming than the prospect which the face of the country presents, in rising corn, vegetables, and verdure of every sort. Oranges, lemons, and fruits, perfume the air. The culture of pulse, melons, sugar-canes, and other plants, which require moisture, is supplied by small but regular cuts from cisterns and reservoirs. Dates, plantanes, grapes, figs, and palm-trees, from which wine is made, are here plentiful. March and April are the harvest months, and they produce three crops; one of lettuces and of cucumbers (the latter being the chief food of the inhabitants) one of corn, and one of melons. The Egyptian pasturage is equally prolific, most of the quadrupeds producing two at a time, and the sheep four lambs a year.

Animals.] Egypt abounds in black cattle; and it is said, that the inhabitants employ every day 200,000 oxen in raising water for their grounds. They have a fine large breed of asses, upon which the Christians ride, those people not being suffered by the Turks to ride on any other beast. The Egyptian horses are very fine; they never trot, but walk well, and gallop with great speed, turn short, stop in a moment, and are extremely tractable. The hippopotamus, or river horse, an amphibious animal, resembling an ox in its hinder parts, with the head like a horse, is common in Upper Egypt. Tygers, hyenas, camels, antelopes, apes, with the head like a dog, and the rat, called ichneumon, are natives of Egypt. The camelion, a little animal, something resembling a lizard, that changes colour as you stand to look upon him, is found here, as well as in other countries. The crocodile was formerly thought peculiar to this country: but there does not seem to be any material difference between it and the alligators of India and America. They are both amphibious animals, in the form of a lizard, and grow till they are about twenty feet in length, and have four short legs, with large feet, armed with claws, and their backs are covered with a kind of impenetrable scales, like armour. The crocodile waits for his prey in the sedge, and other cover, on the sides of rivers; and, pretty much resembling the trunk of an old tree, sometimes surprises the unwary traveller with his fore paws, or beats him down with his tail.

This country produces, likewise, great number of eagles, hawks, pelicans, and water fowls of all kinds. The ibis, a creature (according to Mr. Norden) somewhat resembling a duck, was deified by the ancient Egyptians for its destroying serpents and pestiferous insects. They were thought to be peculiar to Egypt, but a species of them is said to have been lately discovered in other parts of Africa. Ostriches are common here, and are so strong, that the Arabs sometimes ride upon their backs.

The Cerestes or horned viper inhabits the greatest part of the eastern continent, especially the desert sandy parts of it. It abounds in Syria, in the three Arabias, and in Africa: this is supposed to be the aspic which Cleopatra employed to procure her death. Alexandria, plentifully supplied by water, must then have had fruit of all kinds in its gardens. The baskets of figs must have come from thence, and the aspic, or Cerastes, that was hid in them from the adjoining desert, where there are plenty to this day.

POPULATION, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, AND DIVISIONS.} As the population of Egypt is almost confined to the banks of the Nile, and the rest of the country inhabited by Arabs, and other nations, we can say little upon this head with precision. It seems, however, to be certain, that Egypt is at present not near so populous as formerly, and that its depopulation is owing to the inhabitants being slaves to the Turks. They are, however, still very numerous; but what has been said of the populousness of Cairo, as if it contained two millions, is a mere fiction.

The descendants of the original Egyptians, are an ill-looking slovenly people immersed in indolence, and are distinguished by the name of Coptes: in their complexions they are rather sun burnt, than swarthy, or black. Their ancestors were once Christians, and in general they still pretend to be of that religion; but Mahometanism is the prevailing worship among the natives. Those who inhabit the villages and fields, at any considerable distance from the Nile, consist of Arabs, or their descendants, who are of a deep swarthy complexion, and they are represented by the best authorities, as retaining the patriarchal tending their flocks, and many of them without any fixed place of abode. The Turks, who reside in Egypt, retain all their Ottoman pride and insolence, and the Turkish habit, to distinguish themselves from the Arabs and Coptes, who dress very plain, their chief finery being an upper garment of white linen, and linen drawers; but their ordinary dress is of blue linen, with a long cloth coat, either over or under it. The Christians and Arabs of the meaner kind content themselves with a linen or woollen wrapper, which they fold, blanket-like, round their body. The Jews wear blue leather slippers; the other natives of the country wear red, and the foreign Christians, yellow. The dress of the women is tawdry and unbecoming; but their clothes are silk, when they can afford it; and such of them as are not exposed to the sun, have delicate complexions and features. The women are not admitted into the society of men even at table. When the rich are desirous of dining with one of their wives, they give her previous notice, who accordingly prepares the most delicate dishes, and receives her lord with the greatest attention and respect. The women of the lower class usually remain standing, or seated in a corner of the room, while their husband is at dinner, and present him with water to wash, and help him at the table. The Coptes are generally excellent accomptants, and many of them live by teaching the other natives to read and write. Their exercises and diversions are much the same as those made use of in Persia, and other Asiatic dominions. All Egypt is over-run with jugglers, fortune-tellers, mountebanks, and travelling slight-of-hand men.

RELIGION.] To what I have already said concerning the religion of Egypt, it is proper to add, that the bulk of the Mahometans are enthusiasts, and have among them their *santos*, or fellows who pretend to a superior degree of holiness, and without any ceremony intrude into the best houses, where it would be dangerous to turn them out. The Egyptian Turks mind religious affairs very little; and it would be hard to say, what species of Christianity is professed by the Christian Coptes, which are here numerous, but they profess themselves to be of the Greek Church, and enemies to that of Rome. In religious, and indeed many civil matters, they are under the jurisdiction of the patriarch of Alexandria, who, by the dint of money generally purchases a protection at the Ottoman court.

LANGUAGE.] The Coptic is the most ancient language of Egypt. This was succeeded by the Greek, about the time of Alexander the Great; and that by the Arabic, upon the commencement of the caliphate, when the Arabs dispossessed the Greeks of Egypt. The Arabic or Arabesque, as it is called, is still the current language, but the Coptic and modern Greek continue to be spoken.

LEARNING AND LEARNED MEN.] Though it is past dispute that the Greeks derived all their knowledge from the ancient Egyptians, yet scarcely a vestige of it remains among their descendants. This is owing to the bigotry and ignorance of their Mahometan masters; but here it is proper to make one observation, which is of general use. The caliphs, or Saracens, who subdued Egypt, were of three kinds. The first, who were the immediate successors of Mahomet, made war from conscience and principle, upon all kinds of literature, excepting the Koran: and hence it was, that when they took possession of Alexandria, which contained the most mgnificent library the world ever beheld, its valuable manuscripts were applied for some months in cooking their victuals, and warming their baths. The same fate attended upon the other magnificent Egyptian libraries. The caliphs of the second race were men of taste and learning, but of a peculiar strain. They bought up all the manuscripts that survived the general conflagration relating to astronomy, medicine, and some useless parts of philosophy; but they had no taste for the Greek arts of architecture, sculpture, painting, or poetry, and learning was confined to their own courts and colleges, without ever finding its way back to Egypt. The lower race of caliphs, especially those who called themselves caliphs of Egypt disgraced human nature; and the Turks have rivetted the chains of barbarous ignorance which they imposed.

All the learning, therefore, possessed by the modern Egyptians consists in arithmetical calculations for the dispatch of business, the jargon of astrology, a few nostrums in medicine, and some knowledge of Arabesque, or the Mahometan religion.

CURIOSITIES AND ANTIQUITIES.] Egypt abounds more with these than perhaps any other part of the world. Its pyramids have been often described. Their antiquity is beyond the researches of history itself, and their original uses are still unknown. The basis of the largest covers eleven acres of ground, and its perpendicular height is 500 feet, but if measured obliquely to the terminating point, 700 feet. It contains a room thirty-four feet long, and seventeen broad, in which is a marble chest, but without either cover or contents, supposed to have been designed for the tomb of the founder. In short, the pyramids of Egypt are the most stupendous, and, to appearance, the most useless structures that ever were raised by the hands of men.

The mummy pits, so called from their containing the mummies, or embalmed bodies of the ancient Egyptians, are subterraneous vaults of a prodigious extent, but the art of preparing the mummies is now lost. It is said, that some of the bodies thus embalmed, are perfect and distinct at this day, though buried 3000 years ago. The labyrinth in Upper Egypt is a curiosity thought to be more wonderful than the pyramids themselves. It is partly under ground, and cut out of a marble rock, consisting of twelve palaces, and 1000 houses, the intricacies of which occasion its name. The lake Mæris was dug by the order of an Egyptian king, to correct the irregularities of the Nile, and to communicate with that river, by canals and ditches, which still subsist, and are evidences of the utility, as well as grandeur of the work. Wonderful grottos and excavations, mostly artificial, abound in Egypt. The whole country towards Grand Cairo is a continued scene of antiquities, of which the oldest are the most stupendous, but the more modern the most beautiful. Cleopatra's needle, and its sculptures, are admirable. Pompey's pillar, is a fine regular column of the Corinthian order, the shaft of which is one stone, being eighty-eight feet nine inches in height, or ten diameters of the column; the whole height is 114 feet, including the capital and the pedestal. The Sphynx, as it is called, is no more than the head and part of the shoulders of a woman, hewn out of the rock, and about thirty feet high, near one of the pyramids.

The papyrus is one of the natural curiosities of Egypt, and served the ancients to write upon, but we know not the manner of preparing it. The pith of it is a nourishing food. The manner of hatching chickens in ovens is common in Egypt, and now practised in some parts of Europe. The construction of the oven is very curious.

Cities, towns, and public edifices.} Even a slight review of these would amount to a large volume. In many places, not only temples, but the walls of cities, built before the time of Alexander the Great, are still entire, and many of their ornaments, particularly the colours of their paintings, are as fresh and vivid as when first laid on.

Alexandria, which lies on the Levant coast, was once the emporium of all the world; and, by means of the Red Sea, furnished Europe, and great part of Asia, with the riches of India. It owes its name to its founder, Alexander the Great. It stands forty miles west from the Nile, and a hundred and twenty north-west of Cairo. It rose upon the ruins of Tyre and Carthage, and is famous for the light-house erected on the opposite island of Pharos, for the direction of mariners, deservedly esteemed one of the wonders of the world. All the other parts of the city were magnificent in proportion, as appears from their ruins, particularly the cisterns and aqueducts. Many of the materials of the old city, however, have been employed in building New Alexandria, which at present is a very ordinary sea-port, known by the name of Scanderoon. Notwithstanding the poverty, ignorance, and indolence of the inhabitants, their mosques, bagnios and the like buildings, erected within these ruins, preserve an inexpressible air of majesty. Some think that Old Alexandria was built from the materials of the ancient Memphis.

Rosetta, or Raschid, stands twenty-five miles to the north-west of Alexandria, and is recommended for its beautiful situation, and delightful prospects which command the fine country, or island of Delta, formed by the Nile, near its mouth. It is likewise a place of great trade.

Cairo, now Masr, the present capital of Egypt, is a large and populous, but a disagreeable residence, on account of its pestilential air, and narrow streets. It is divided into two towns, the Old and the New, and defended by an old castle, the works of which are said to be three miles in circumference. This castle is said to have been built by Saladine: at the west end are the remains of very noble apartments, some of which are covered with domes, and adorned with pictures in Mosaic work; but these apartments are now only used for weaving embroidery, and preparing the hangings and coverings annually sent to Mecca. The well, called Joseph's well, is a curious piece of mechanism, about 300 feet deep. The memory of that patriarch is still revered in Egypt, where they show granaries, and many other works of public utility, that go under his name. They are certainly of vast antiquity; but it is very questionable whether they were erected by him. One of his granaries is shown in Old Cairo, but captain

Norden suspects it is a Saracen work, nor does he give us any idea of the buildings of the city itself. On the banks of the Nile, facing Cairo, lies the village of Gizie, which is thought to be the ancient Memphis. Two miles west, is Bulac, called the port of Cairo. The Christians of Cairo practise a holy cheat, during the Easter holidays, by pretending that the limbs and bodies of the dead arise from their graves, to which they return peaceably. The streets of Cairo are pestered with the jugglers and fortune-tellers already mentioned. One of their favourite exhibitions is their dancing camels, which, when young they place upon a large heated floor: the intense heat makes the poor creatures caper, and being plied all the time with the sound of drums, the noise of that instrument sets them a dancing all their lives after.

The other towns of note in Egypt are Damietta, supposed to be the ancient Pelusium; Seyd, on the west banks of the Nile, 200 miles south of Cairo, said to be the ancient Egyptian Thebes; by the few who have visited it, it is reported to be the most capital antique curiosity that is now extant; and Cossiar, on the west coast of the Red Sea. The general practice of strangers who visit those places, is to hire a janizary, whose authority commonly protects them from the insults of the other natives. Suez, formerly a place of great trade, is now a small city, and gives name to the Isthmus that joins Africa with Asia. The children of Israel are supposed to have marched near this city, when they left Egypt in their way towards the Red Sea.

Manufactures and commerce.] The Egyptians export great quantities of unmanufactured as well as prepared flax, thread, cotton, and leather of all sorts; callicoes, yellow wax, sal ammoniac, saffron, sugar, sena, and cassia. They trade with the Arabs for coffee, drugs, spices, callicoes, and other merchandizes, which are landed at Suez, from whence they send them to Europe. Several European states have consuls resident in Egypt, but the customs of the Turkish government are managed by Jews. A number of English vessels arrive yearly at Alexandria; some of which are laden on account of the owners, but most of them are hired and employed as carriers to the Jews, Armenians, and Mahometan traders.

Constitution and government.] The government of Egypt is both monarchical and republican. The monarchical is executed by the pasha, and the republican by the mamalukes or sangiacks. The pasha is appointed by the grand signior as his viceroy. The republican, or rather the aristocratical part of the government of Egypt, consists of a divan, composed of twenty-four sangiacks, beys, or lords. The head of them is called the sheik biellet, who is chosen by the divan, and confirmed by the pasha. Every one of these sangiacks is arbitrary in his own territory, and exerts sovereign power: the major part of them reside at Cairo. If the grand signior's pasha acts in opposition to the sense of the divan, or attempts to violate their privileges, they will not suffer him to continue in his post; and they have an authentic grant of privileges, dated in the year 1517, in which year Sultan Selim conquered Egypt from the Mamalukes.

Revenues.] These are very inconsiderable, when compared to the natural riches of the country, and the despotism of the government. Some say that they amount to a million sterling, but that two thirds of the whole is spent in the country.

Military strength.] Authors are greatly divided on this article. Mr. Norden tells us, that it is divided into two corps of Janizaries, and assafs, which are the chief, the former amounting to about six or eight

thousand,

thousand, and the latter to be between three and four thousand. The other troops are of little account. After all, it does not appear that the pasha ever ventures to employ those troops against the Arab or Egyptian princes already mentioned, and who have separate armies of their own; so that, in fact, their dependence upon the Porte is little more than nominal, and amounts at most to feudal services.

HISTORY.] It is generally agreed, that the princes of the line of the Pharaohs sat on the throne of Egypt, in an uninterrupted succession, till Cambyses II, king of Persia, conquered the Egyptians, 520 years before the birth of Christ; and that in the reign of these princes, those wonderful structures, the pyramads, were raised, which cannot be viewed without astonishment. Egypt continued a part of the Persian empire, till Alexander the Great vanquished Darius, when it fell under the dominion of that prince, who soon after built the celebrated city of Alexandria. The conquests of Alexander, who died in the prime of life, being seized upon by his generals, the province of Egypt fell to the share of Ptolemy, by some supposed to have been a half-brother of Alexander, when it again became an independent kingdom, about 300 years before Christ. His successors, who sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, ever after retained the name of Ptolemies, and in that line Egypt contined between two and three hundred years, till the famous Cleopatra, the wife and sister of Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, ascended the throne. After the death of Cleopatra, who had been mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Mark Anthony, Egypt became a Roman province, and thus remained till the reign of Omar, the second caliph of the successors of Mahomet, who expelled the Romans after it had been in their hands 700 years. The famous library of Alexandria, said to consist of 700,000 volumes, was collected by Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy, and the same prince caused the Old Testament to be translated into Greek; this translation is known by the name of the Septuagint. About the time of the crusades, between the years 1150 and 1190, Egypt was governed by Noreddin, whose son, the famous Saladine, was so dreadful to the Christian adventurers, and retook from them Jerusalem. He instituted the military corps of Mamalukes, who, about the year 1242, advanced one of their own officers to the throne, and ever after chose their prince out of their own body. Egypt, for some time, made a figure under those illustrious usurpers, and made a noble stand against the prevailing power of the Turks, till, under Selim, who, after giving the Mamalukes several bloody defeats, they reduced Egypt to its present state of subjection.

While Selim was settling the government of Egypt, great numbers of the ancient inhabitants withdrew into the deserts and plains, under one Zinganeus, from whence they attacked the cities and villages of the Nile, and plundered whatever fell in their way. Selim, and his officers, perceiving that it would be a matter of great difficulty to extirpate those marauders, left them at liberty to quit the country, which they did in great numbers, and their posterity is known all over Europe and Asia, by the name of Gipsies.

An attempt was made a few years since, to deprive the Ottoman Porte of its authority over Egypt, by Ali Bey, whose father was a priest of the Greek Church. Ali having turned Mahometan, and being a man of abilities and address, rendered himself extremely popular in Egypt. A false accusation having been made against him to the Grand Signior, his head was ordered to be sent to Constantinople; but being apprised of the design, he seized and put to death the messengers who brought this order, and soon found means to put himself at the head of an army. Being also assisted by the dangerous situation to which the Turkish empire was reduced, in consequence of the war with Russia, he boldly mounted the throne of the ancients sultans of Egypt. But not content with the kingdom of Egypt, he also laid claim to Syria, Palestine, and that part of Arabia which had belonged to the ancient sultans. He marched at the head of his troops to support these pretensions, and actually subdued some of the neighbouring provinces, both of Arabia and Syria. At the same time that he was engaged in these great enterprises, he was not less attentive to the establishing of a regular form of government, and of introducing order into a country that had been long the seat of anarchy and confusion. His views were equally extended to commerce; for which purpose he gave great encouragement to the Christian traders, and took off some shameful restraints and indignities to which they were subjected in that barbarous country. He also wrote a letter to the republic of Venice, with the greatest assurances of his friendship, and that their merchants should meet with every degree of protection and safety. His great design was said to be, to make himself master of the Red Sea; to open the port of Suez to all nations, but particularly to the Europeans, and to make Egypt once more the great centre of commerce. The conduct and views of Ali Bey showed an extent of thought and ability, that indicated nothing of the barbarian, and bespoke a mind equal to the founding of an empire; but he was not finally successful. He was, however, for some time extremely fortunate; he assumed the titles and state of the ancient sultans of Egypt, and was ably supported by Sheik Daher, and some other Arabian princes, who warmly espoused his interests. He also succeeded in almost all his enterprises against the neighbouring Asiatic governors and bashas, whom he repeatedly defeated: but he was afterwards deprived of the kingdom of Egypt, by the base and ungrateful conduct of his brother-in-law, Mahomed Bey Abudahap, his troops being totally defeated on the 7th of March, 1773. He was also himself wounded and taken prisoner; and dying of his wounds, was buried honourably at Grand Cairo. Abudahap afterwards governed Egypt as Sheik Bellet, and marched into Palestine to subdue Sheik Daher. After behaving with great cruelty to the inhabitants of the places he took, he was found dead in his bed one morning at Acre, supposed to be strangled. Sheik Daher accepted the Porte's full amnesty; and trusting to their assurances, embraced the captain pacha's invitation to dine on board his ship; when the captain produced his orders, and the brave Daher, Ali Bey's ally, had his head cut off in the 85th year of his age.

From that time Egypt has been torn by a civil war, between the adherents of Ali, and other beys or princes, who rose on his ruins. Of these the principal are Morad and Ybrahim, who having driven their enemies into banishment, began to quarrel among themselves. Alternately expelled from Cairo, they finally agreed to a compromise, March 1785; but it is not expected that their agreement will be lasting.

The Porte still retains a pacha there; but this pacha, confined and watched in the castle of Cairo, is rather the prisoner of the Mamalukes than the representative of the sultan.

THE STATES OF BARBARY.

UNDER this head I shall rank the countries of, 1. Morocco and Fez; 2. Algiers; 3. Tunis; 4. Tripoli and Barca.

The empire of Morocco, including Fez, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by Tafilet; and on the east, by Segelmessa and the kingdom of Algiers; being 500 miles in length, and 480 in breadth.

Fez, which is now united to Morocco, is about 125 miles in length, and much the same in breadth. It lies between the kingdom of Algiers to the east, and Morocco on the south, and is surrounded on other parts by the sea.

Algiers, formerly a kingdom, is bounded on the east by the kingdom of Tunis, on the north by the Mediterranean, on the south by Mount Atlas, and on the west by the kingdoms of Morocco and Tafilet. According to Dr. Shaw, this country extends in length 480 miles along the coast of the Mediterranean, and is between 40 and 100 miles in breadth.

Tunis is bounded by the Mediterranean on the north and east: by the kingdom of Algiers on the west; and by Tripoli, with part of Biledulgerid, on the south; being 220 miles in length from north to south, and 170 in breadth from east to west.

Tripoli, including Barca, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the south, by the country of the Beriberies; on the west by the kingdem of Tunis, Biledulgerid, and a territory of the Gadamis; and on the east by Egypt; extending about 1100 miles along the sea-coast; and the breadth is from 1 to 300 miles.

Each capital bears the name of the state or kingdom to which it belongs.

This being premised, I shall consider the Barbary states as forming (which they really do) a great political confederacy, however independent each may be as to the exercise of its internal policy, nor is there a greater difference than happens in different provinces of the same kingdom, in the customs and manners of the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The air of Morocco is mild, as is that of Algiers, and indeed all the other states, except in the months of July and August.

SOIL, VEGETABLE AND ANIMAL PRODUCTIONS BY SEA AND LAND.} These states, under the Roman empire, were justly denominated the garden of the world; and to have a residence there was considered as the highest state of luxury. The produce of their soil formed those magazines which furnished all Italy, and great part of the Roman empire, with corn, wine, and oil. Though the lands are now uncultivated, through the oppression and barbarity of their government, yet they are still fertile; not only in the above mentioned commodities, but in dates, figs, raisins, almonds, apples, pears, cherries, plums, citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, with plenty of roots and herbs in their kitchen gardens. Excellent hemp and flax grow on their plains; and by the report of Europeans, who have lived there for some time, the country abounds with all that can add to the pleasures of life; for their great people find means to evade the sobriety prescribed by the Mahometan law, and make free with excellent wines and spirits of their own growth and manufacture. Algiers produces salt-petre, and great quantities of excellent salt; and lead and iron have been found in several places of Barbary.

Neither the elephant nor the rhinoceros are to be found in the states of Barbary; but their deserts abound with lions, tigers, leopards, hyænas, and monstrous serpents. The Barbary horses were formerly very valuable, and thought equal to the Arabian. Though their breed is now said to be decayed, yet some very fine ones are occasionally imported into England.

Dromedaries, asses, mules, and kumrahs, a most serviceable creature, begot by an ass upon a cow, are their beasts of burden.

But from the services of the camel they derive the greatest advantages. This useful quadruped enables the African to perform his long and toilsome journies across the continent. The camel is, therefore (says Mr. Bruce) emphatically called the *Ship of the Desert*. He seems to have been created for this very trade, endued with parts and qualities adapted to the office he is employed to discharge. The driest thistle, and the barest thorn, is all the food this useful animal requires, and even these, to save time, he eats while advancing on his journey, without stopping, or occasioning a moment of delay. As it is his lot to cross immense deserts, where no water is found, and countries not even moistened by the dew of heaven, he is endued with the power at one watering place to lay in a store with which he supplies himself for thirty days to come. To contain this enormous quantity of fluid, nature has formed large cisterns within him, from which, once filled, he draws at pleasure the quantity he wants, and pours it into his stomach with the same effect as if he then drew it from a spring, and with this he travels, patiently and vigorously, all day long, carrying a prodigious load upon him, through countries infected with poisonous winds, and glowing with parching and never-cooling sands.

Their cows are but small, and barren of milk. Their sheep yield indifferent fleeces, but are very large, as are their goats. Bears, porcupines, foxes, apes, hares, rabbits, ferrets, weasels, moles, cameleons, and all kinds of reptiles are found here. Besides vermin, says Dr. Shaws (speaking of his travels through Barbary) the apprehensions we are under, in some parts at least of this country, of being bitten or stung by the scorpion, the viper, or the venomous spider, rarely failed to interrupt our repose; a refreshment so very grateful, and so highly necessary to a weary traveller. Partridges, quails, eagles, hawks, and all kinds of wild-fowl, are found on this coast; and of the smaller birds, the capsa-sparrow is remarkable for its beauty, and the sweetness of its note, which is thought to exceed that of any other bird, but it cannot live out of its own climate. The seas and bays of Barbary abound with the finest and most delicious fish of every kind, and were preferred by the ancients to those of Europe.

Population, inhabitants, manners, customs, and diversions. Morocco was certainly formerly far more populous than it is now, if, as travellers say, its capital contained 100,000 houses, whereas at present, it is thought not to contain above 25,000 inhabitants; nor can we think that the other parts of the country are more populous, if it is true, that their king or emperor has 80,000 horse and foot, of foreign negroes, in his armies.

The city of Algiers is said to contain 100,000 Mahometans, 15,000 Jews, and 2000 Christian slaves; but no estimate can be formed as to the populousness of its territory. Some travellers report that it is inhabited by a friendly hospitable people, who are very different in their manners and character from those of the metropolis.

Tunis is the most polished republic of all the Barbary States. The capital contains 10.000 families, and above 3000 tradesmens' shops; and its suburbs consist of 1000 houses. The Tunisines are indeed exceptions to the other States of Barbary; for even the most civilised of the European governments might improve from their manners. Their distinctions are well kept up, and proper respect is paid to the military, mercantile, and learned professions. They cultivate friendship with the European States; arts and manufactures have been lately introduced among them; and the inhabitants are said at present to be well acquainted with the various labours of the loom. The women are handſome in their perſons; and though the men are ſun-burnt, the complexion of the ladies is very delicate; nor are they leſs neat and elegant in their dreſs; but they improve the beauty of their eyes by art, particularly the powder of lead-ore, the ſame pigment, according to the opinion of the learned Dr. Shaw, that Jezebel made uſe of when ſhe is ſaid (2 Kings, chap. ix. verſe 30) to have painted her face; the words of the original being, that ſhe ſet off her eyes with the powder of lead-ore. The gentlemen in general are ſober, orderly, and clean in their perſons, their behaviour complaiſant, and a wonderful regularity reigns through all the city.

Tripoli was once the richeſt, moſt populous, and opulent of all the ſtates on the coaſt; but it is now much reduced, and the inhabitants, who are ſaid to amount to between 400,000 and 500,000, have all the vices of the Algerines.

Their manners are much of a piece with thoſe of the Egyptians already deſcribed. The ſubjects of the Barbary ſtates, in general ſubſiſting by piracy, are allowed to be bold intreprid mariners, and will fight deſperately when they meet with a prize at ſea; they are, notwithſtanding, far inferior to the Engliſh and other European ſtates, both in the conſtruction and management of their veſſels. They are, if we except the Tuniſines, void of all arts and literature. The miſery and poverty of the inhabitants of Morocco, who are not immediately in the emperor's ſervice, are beyond all deſcription; but thoſe who inhabit the inland parts of the country are an hoſpitable inoffenſive people; and indeed it is a general obſervation, that the more diſtant the inhabitants of thoſe States are from the ſeats of their government, their manners are the more pure. Notwithſtanding their poverty, they have a livelineſs about them, eſpecially thoſe who are of Arabic deſcent, that gives them an air of contentment; and having nothing to loſe, they are peaceable among themſelves. The Moors are ſuppoſed to be the original inhabitants, but are now blended with the Arabs, and both are cruelly oppreſſed by a handful of inſolent domineering Turks, the refuſe of the ſtreets of Conſtantinople.

DRESS.] The dreſs of theſe people is a linen ſhirt, over which they tie a ſilk or cloth veſtment with a ſaſh, and over that a looſe coat. Their drawers are made of linen. The arms and legs of the wearer are bare, but they have ſlippers on their feet; and perſons of condition ſometimes wear buſkins. They never move their turbans, but pull off their ſlippers when they attend religious duties, or the perſon of their ſovereign. They are fond of ſtriped and fancied ſilks. The dreſs of the women is not very different from that of the men, but their drawers are longer, and they wear a ſort of cawl on their heads inſtead of a turban. The chief furniture of their houſes conſiſts of carpets and mattreſſes, on which they ſit and lie. In eating, their ſlovenlineſs is diſguſting. They are prohibited gold and ſilver veſſels; and their meat which they ſwallow by handfuls, is boiled or roaſted to rags.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of theſe ſtates are Mahometans; but many ſubjects of Morocco follow the tenets of one Hamed, a modern ſectariſt, and an enemy to the ancient doctrine of the caliphs. All of them are very fond of idiots; and in ſome caſes their protection ſcreens offenders from puniſhment, for the moſt notorious crimes. In the main, however, the Moors of Barbary, as the inhabitants of theſe ſtates are now promiſcuouſly called (becauſe the Saracens firſt entered Europe from Mauritania, the country of the Moors) have adopted the very worſt parts of the Mahometan religion, and ſeem to have retained only as much of it as countenances their vices. Adultery in the women is puniſhed with death; but though the men are indulged with a plurality of wives and concubines, they commit the moſt unnatural crimes with impunity. All foreigners are allowed the open profeſſion of their religion.

LANGUAGE.] As the ſtates of Barbary poſſeſs thoſe countries that formerly went by the name of Mauritania and Numidia, the ancient African language is ſtill ſpoken in ſome of the inland countries, and even by ſome inhabitants of the city of Morocco. In the ſea-port towns, and maritime countries, a baſtard kind of Arabic is ſpoken; and ſeafaring people are no ſtrangers to that medley of living and dead languages, Italian, French, Spaniſh, &c. that is ſo well known in all ports of the Mediterranean, by the name of *Lingua Franca*.

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES, NATURAL AND ARTIFICIAL.} This article is well worth the ſtudy of an antiquary, but the ſubjects of it are difficult of acceſs. The reader can ſcarcely doubt that the countries which contained Carthage, and the pride of the Phœnician, Greek, and Roman works, are replete with the moſt curious remains of antiquity, but they lie ſcattered amidſt ignorant, barbarous inhabitants. Some memorials of the Mauritanian and Numidian greatneſs are ſtill to be met with, and many ruins which bear evidence of their ancient grandeur and populouſneſs. Theſe point out the old Julia Cæſarea of the Romans, which was little inferior in magnificence to Carthage itſelf A few of the aqueducts of Carthage are ſtill remaining, particularly at Manuba, a country houſe of the Bey's, four miles from Tunis; but no veſtige of its walls. The ſame is the fate of Utica, famous for the retreat and death of Cato; and many other renowned cities of antiquity; and ſo over-run is the country with barbariſm, that their very ſites are not known. even by their ruins, amphitheatres, and other public buildings which remain ſtill in tolerable preſervation. Beſides thoſe of claſſical antiquity, many Saracen monuments, of the moſt ſtupendous magnificence, are likewiſe found in this vaſt tract: theſe were erected under the caliphs of Bagdad, and the ancient kings of the country, before it was ſubdued by the Turks, or reduced to its preſent form of government. Their walls form the principal fortifications in the country, both inland and maritime. We know of few or no natural curioſities belonging to this country, excepting its ſalt-pits, which in ſome places take up an area of ſix miles. Dr. Shaw mentions ſprings found here that are ſo hot as to boil a large piece of mutton very tender in a quarter of an hour.

CITIES AND PUBLIC BUILDINGS.] Mention has already been made of Morocco, the capital of that kingdom, but now almoſt in ruins, the court having removed to Mequinez, a city of Fez. Incredible things are recorded of the magnificent palaces in both cities; but by the beſt accounts the common people live in a very ſlovenly manner.

The city of Algiers is not above a mile and a half in circuit, though it is computed to contain near 120,000 inhabitants, 15,000 houſes, and 107 moſques. Their public baths are large, and handſomely paved with marble. The proſpect of the country and ſea from Algiers is very beautiful, being built on the declivity of a mountain; but the city, though for ſeveral ages it has braved ſome of the greateſt powers in Chriſtendom, could make but a faint defence againſt a regular ſiege; and it is ſaid that three Engliſh fifty-gun ſhips might batter it about the ears of its inhabitants from the harbour. If ſo, the Spaniards muſt have been very deficient either in courage or conduct. They attacked it, in 1775, by land and by ſea, but were repulſed with great loſs, though they had near 20,000 foot and 2000 horſe, and 47 king's ſhips, of different rates, and 346 tranſports. In the years 1783 and 1784, they alſo renewed their attacks by ſea to deſtroy the city and gallies, but after ſpending a quantity of ammunition, bombs, &c. were forced to retire without either its capture or extinction. The mole of the harbour is 500 paces in length, extending from the continent to a ſmall iſland where there is a caſtle and large battery.

The kingdom of Tunis, which is naturally the fineſt of all theſe ſtates, contains the remains of many noble cities, ſome of them ſtill in good condition. Tunis, built near the original ſite of Carthage, hath a wall and fortifications, and is about three miles in circumference. The houſes are not magnificent, but neat and commodious; as is the public exchange for merchants and their goods: but, like Algiers, it is diſtreſſed for want of freſh water, but that of rain, preſerved in ciſterns, is chiefly uſed by the inhabitants.

The city of Tripoli conſiſts of an old and new town, the latter being the moſt flouriſhing; but great inconveniences attend its ſituation, particularly the want of ſweet water. The city of Oran, lying upon this coaſt, is about a mile in circumference, and is fortified both by art and nature. It was a place of conſiderable trade, and the object of many bloody diſputes between the Spaniards and the Moors. Conſtantina was the ancient Cirta, and one of the ſtrongeſt cities of Numidia, being inacceſſible on all ſides, excepting the ſouth-weſt

Beſides the above towns and cities, many others, formerly of great renown, lie ſcattered up and down this immenſe tract of country. The city of Fez, at preſent the capital of the kingdom ſo called, is ſaid to contain near 300,000 inhabitants, beſides merchants and foreigners. Its moſques amount to 500; one of them magnificent beyond deſcription, and about a mile and a half in circumference. Mequinez is eſteemed the great emporium of all Barbary. Sallee was formerly famous for the piracies of its inhabitants. Tangier, ſituated about two miles within the ſtraits of Gibraltar, was given by the crown of Portugal as part of the dowry of queen Catharine, conſort to Charles II, of England. It was intended to be to the Engliſh what Gibraltar is now; and it muſt have been a moſt noble acquiſition, had not the miſunderſtandings between the king and his parliament occaſioned him to blow up its fortifications and demoliſh its harbour; ſo that from being one of the fineſt cities in Africa, it is now little better than a fiſhing town. Ceuta, upon the ſame ſtrait, almoſt oppoſite to Gibraltar, is ſtill in the hands of the Spaniards, but often, if not always, beſieged or blocked up by the Moors. Tetuan, which lies within twenty miles of Ceuta, is now but an ordinary town, containing about 800 houſes; but the inhabitants are ſaid to be rich, and tolerably civilized in their manners.

The provinces of Suz, Tafilet, and Geſula, form no part of the ſtates of Barbary, though the king of Morocco pretends to be their ſovereign; nor do they contain any thing that is particularly curious. Zaara, is a deſert country, thinly peopled, and almoſt deſtitute both of water and proviſions.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The lower ſubjects of theſe ſtates know very few imaginary wants, and depend partly upon their piracies to be ſupplied with neceſſary utenſils and manufactures; ſo that their exports conſiſt chiefly of leather, fine mats, embroidered handkerchiefs, ſword-knots, and carpets, which are cheaper and ſofter than thoſe of Turkey, though not ſo good in other reſpects. As they leave almoſt all their commercial affairs to the Jews and Chriſtians ſettled among them, the latter have eſtabliſhed ſilk and linen works, which ſupply the higher ranks of their own ſubjects. They have no ſhips, that, properly ſpeaking, are employed in commerce; ſo that the French and Engliſh carry on the greateſt part of their trade. Their exports, besides those already mentioned, consist in elephants' teeth, ostrich feathers, copper, tin, wool, hides, honey, wax, dates, raisins, olives, almonds, gum arabic, and sandrac. The inhabitants of Morocco are likewise said to carry on a considerable trade by caravans to Mecca, Medina, and some inland parts of Africa, from whence they bring back vast numbers of negroes, who serve in their armies, and are slaves in their houses and fields.

In return for their exports, the Europeans furnish them with timber, artillery of all kinds, gunpowder, and whatever they want, either in their public or private capacities. The duties paid by the English in the ports of Morocco, are but half of those paid by other Europeans. It is a general observation, that no nation is fond of trading with these states, not only on account of their capricious despotism, but the villainy of their individuals, both natives and Jews, many of whom take all opportunities of cheating, and, when detected, are seldom punished.

It has often been thought surprising, that the Christian powers should suffer their marine to be insulted by these barbarians, who take the ships of all nations with whom they are at peace, or rather, who do not pay them a subsidy either in money or commodities. We cannot account for this forbearance otherwise than by supposing, first, that a breach with them might provoke the Porte, who pretends to be the lord paramount; secondly, that no Christian power would be fond of seeing Algiers, and the rest of that coast, in possession of another; and, thirdly, that nothing could be got by a bombardment of any of their towns, as the inhabitants would instantly carry their effects into the deserts and mountains, so that the benefit resulting from the conquest, must be tedious and precarious.—Indeed, expeditions against Algiers have been undertaken by the Spaniards, but they were ill-conducted and unsuccessful, as before noticed.

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT.] In Morocco, government cannot be said to exist. The emperors have for some ages been parties, judges, and even executioners with their own hands, in all criminal matters; nor is their brutality more incredible than the submission with which their subjects bear it. In the absence of the emperor, every military officer has the power of life and death in his hand, and it is seldom that they mind the form of a judicial proceeding. Some vestiges, however, of the caliphate government still continue; for in places where no military officer resides, the mufti or high-priest is the fountain of all justice, and under him the cadis, or civil officers, who act as our justices of the peace. Though the emperor of Morocco is not immediately subject to the Porte, yet he acknowledges the grand signior to be his superior, and he pays him a distant allegiance as the chief representative of Mahomet. What I have said of Morocco is applicable to Fez, both kingdoms being now under one emperor.

Though Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli have each of them a Turkish pasha or dey who governs in the name of the grand signior, yet very little regard is paid by his ferocious subjects to his authority. He cannot even be said to be nominated by the Porte. When a vacancy of the government happens, which it commonly does by murder, every soldier in the army has a vote in choosing the succeeding dey; and though the election is often attended with bloodshed, yet it is no sooner fixed than he is cheerfully recognised and obeyed. It is true, he must be confirmed by the Porte; but that is seldom refused, as the divan is no stranger to the dispositions of the people. The power of the dey is despotic; and the income of the dey of Algiers amounts to about 150,000l. a year, without greatly oppressing his subjects, who are very tenacious of their property. These deys pay slight annual tributes to the Porte. When the grand signior is at war with a Christian power, he requires their assistance, as he does that of the king of Morocco; but he is obeyed only as they think proper. Subordinate to the deys are officers, both military and civil; and in all matters of importance the dey is expected to take the advice of a common council which consists of thirty pashas. These pashas seldom fail of forming parties amongst the soldiers, against the reigning dey, whom they make no scruple of assassinating, even in council; and the strongest candidate then fills his place. Sometimes he is deposed; sometimes, though but very seldom, he resigns his authority to save his life, and it is seldom he dies a natural death upon the throne. The authority of the dey is unlimited; but an unsuccessful expedition, or too pacific a conduct, seldom fails to put an end to his life and government.

REVENUES.] I have already mentioned those of Algiers, but they are now said to be exceeded by Tunis. They consist of a certain proportion of the prizes taken from Christians, a small capitation tax, and the customs paid by the English, French, and other nations, who are suffered to trade with those states. As to the king of Morocco, we can form no idea of his revenues, because none of his subjects can be said to possess any property. From the manner of his living, his attendance, and appearance, we may conclude he does not abound in riches. The ransoms of Christian slaves are his perquisites. He sometimes shares in the vessels of the other states, which entitles him to part of their prizes. He claims a tenth of the goods of his Mahometan subjects, and six crowns a year from every Jew merchant. He has likewise considerable profits in the Negroland and other caravans, especially the slave trade towards the south. It is thought that the whole of his ordinary revenue, in money, does not exceed 165,000l. a year. A detachment of the army of these states is annually sent into each province to collect the tribute from the Moors and Arabs; and the prizes they take at sea sometimes equal the taxes laid upon the natives.

MILITARY STRENGTH AT SEA AND LAND.} By the best accounts we have received, the king of Morocco can bring to the field 100,000 men; but the strength of his army consists of cavalry mounted by his negro slaves. Those wretches are brought young to Morocco, know no other state but servitude, and no other master but that king, and prove the firmest support of his tyranny. About the year 1727, all the naval force of Morocco consisted only of three small ships, which lay at Sallee, and being full of men, sometimes brought in prizes. The Algerines maintain about 6500 foot, consisting of Turks, and cologlies, or the sons of soldiers. Part of them serve as marines on board their vessels. About 1000 of them do garrison duty, and part are employed in fomenting differences among the neighbouring Arab princes. Besides these, the dey can bring 2000 Moorish horse to the field; but as they are enemies to the Turks, they are little trusted. Those troops are under excellent discipline, and the deys of all the other Barbary states keep up a force in proportion to their abilities; so that a few years ago they refused to send any tribute to the Turkish emperor, who seems to be satisfied with the shadow of obedience which they pay him.

It is very remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets and a more extensive commerce than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarcely any merchant ships belonging to them, nor indeed any other than what Sallee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli fit out for piracy; which, though increased since the last attack of the Spaniards, are now but few and small, and some years ago did not exceed six ships, from thirty-six to fifty guns. The admiral's ship belongs to the government; the other captains are appointed by private owners, but subject to military law. With such a contemptible fleet, these infidels not only harrass the nations of Europe, but oblige them to pay a kind of tribute by way of presents.

HISTORY.] There perhaps is no problem in history so unaccountable as the decadence of the splendor, power, and glory of the states of Barbary; which, when Rome was mistress of the world, formed the fairest jewels in the imperial diadem. It was not till the seventh century that, after these states had been by turns in possession of the Vandals and the Greek emperors, the caliphs or Saracens of Bagdad conquered them, and from thence became masters of almost all Spain, from whence their posterity was totally driven about the year 1492, when the exiles settled among their friends and countrymen on the Barbary coast. This naturally begot a perpetual war between them and the Spaniards, who pressed them so hard, that they called to their assistance the two famous brothers Barbarossa, who were admirals of the Turkish fleet, and who after breaking the Spanish yoke, imposed upon the inhabitants of all those states (excepting Morocco) their own. Some attempts were made by the emperor Charles V to reduce Algiers and Tunis, but they were unsucessful; and, as observed, the inhabitants have in fact shaken off the Turkish yoke likewise.

The emperors, or kings, of Morocco are the successors of those sovereigns of that country who were called xeriffs, and whose powers resembled that of the caliphate of the Saracens. They have been in general a set of bloody tyrants; though they have had among them some able princes, particularly Muley Moluc, who defeated and killed Don Sebastian, king of Portugal. They have lived in almost a continual state of warfare with the kings of Spain and other Christian princes ever since: nor does the crown of Great Britain sometimes disdain, as in the year 1769, to purchase their friendship with presents.

The empire of Morocco has been greatly disturbed by intestine commotions: a battle was fought between the emperor and his brother Ben Asser, in which the latter was defeated and slain. Late accounts say that the Spaniards had assisted another brother against the emperor, and that the conflict proved fatal to the latter.

ABYSSINIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 900	between	6 and 20 north latitude.	378,000
Breadth 800		26 and 44 east longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] IT is bounded on the north by the kingdom of Sennaar, or Nubia; on the east partly by the Red sea, and partly by Dancala; on the west, by Gorham; and on the south, by the kingdom of Gingiro, and Alaba.

It contains (according to Mr. Bruce, from whom the following account is chiefly taken) the following provinces, viz.

1st. Masuah;

1. Masuah; 2. Tigre; 3. Samen; 4. Begemder; 5. Amhara; 6. Walaka; 7. Gojam; 8. Damot; 9. Maisha; 10. Dembea; 11. Kuara; 12. Nara.

AIR AND SEASONS.] The rainy season continues for six months of the year, from April to September, which is succeeded, without interval, by a cloudless sky and vertical sun; and cold nights, which as immediately follow these scorching days. The earth, notwithstanding the heat of these days, is yet perpetually cold, so as to feel disagreeably to the soles of the feet; partly owing to the six months' rains, when no sun appears, and partly to the perpetual equality of nights and days.

QUADRUPEDS.] There is no country in the world which produces a greater number or variety of quadrupeds, whether tame or wild, than Abyssinia. Of the tame or cow-kind, great abundance present themselves every where, differing in size, some having horns of various dimensions, some without horns at all; differing also in the colour and length of their hair.

Among the wild animals are prodigious numbers of the gazel, or antelope kind; the bohur, sassa, feeho, and madequa, and many others. The hyæna is still more numerous. There are few varieties of the dog or fox kind. Of these the most numerous is the deep, or, as he is called, the jackal; this is precisely the same in all respects as the deep of Barbary and Syria, who are heard hunting in great numbers, and howling in the evening and morning. The wild boar, smaller and smoother in the hair than that of Barbary or Europe, but differing in nothing else, is met frequently in swamps or banks of rivers covered with wood.

The elephant, rhinoceros, giraffa, and camelopardalis, are inhabitants of the low hot country; nor is the lion, leopard, or faadh, which is the panther, seen in the high and cultivated country. The hippopotamus and crocodile abound in all the rivers, not only of Abyssinia, but as low down as Nubia and Egypt. There are many of the ass kind in the low country towards the frontiers of Atbara, but no zebras; these are the inhabitants of Fazuclo and Narea.

But of all the other quadrupeds, there is none exceeds the hyæna for its merciless ferocity. They were a plague, says our author, speaking of these animals, in Abyssinia in every situation, both in the city and in the field, and I think surpassed the sheep in number. Gondar was full of them from the time it turned dark till the dawn of day, seeking the different pieces of slaughtered carcases which this cruel and unclean people expose in the streets without burial.

It is a constant observation in Numidia, that the lion avoids and flies from the face of man, till by some accident they have been brought to engage, and the beast has prevailed against him; then that feeling of superiority imprinted by the Creator in the heart of all animals for man's preservation, seems to forsake him. The lion, having once tasted human blood, relinquishes the pursuit after the flock. He repairs to some highway or frequented path, and has been known in the kingdom of Tunis, to interrupt the road to a market for several weeks; and in this he persists till hunters or soldiers are sent out to destroy him.

BIRDS.] The number of birds in Abyssinia exceeds that of other animals beyond proportion. The high and low countries are equally stored with them: the first kind are the carnivorous birds. Many species of the eagle and hawk, many more still of the vulture kind, as it were, over-stock all parts of the country. That species of glede, called Haddaya so frequent in Egypt, comes very punctually into Ethiopia, at the return of the sun, after the tropical rains. The Nissar or Golden Eagle, is not only the largeſt of the eagle kind, but ſurely one of the largeſt birds that flies. From wing to wing he is eight feet four inches. The black eagle Rachamah, Erkoom, Moroc, Sheregrig, and Waalia, are particularly deſcribed by the hiſtorian of Abyſſinia, to whoſe celebrated work we refer the reader who is deſirous of information concerning them.

There is no great plenty of water-fowl in Abyſſinia, eſpecially of the web-footed kind. Vaſt variety of ſtorks cover the plains in May, when the rains become conſtant. All the deep and graſſy bogs have ſnipes in them; and ſwallows there are of many kinds unknown in Europe; thoſe that are common in Europe appear in paſſage at the very ſeaſon when they take their flight from thence. There are few owls in Abyſſinia; but thoſe are of an immenſe ſize and beauty. There are no geeſe, wild or tame, excepting what is called the Golden Gooſe, Gooſe of the Nile, or Gooſe of the Cape, common in all the ſouth of Africa: theſe build their neſts upon trees, and when not in water, generally ſit upon them.

Insects.] From the claſs of inſects, we ſhall ſelect the moſt remarkable, viz. the Tſaltſalya, or fly, which is an inſect that furniſhes a ſtriking proof how fallacious it is to judge by appearances. If we conſider its ſmall ſize, its weakneſs, want of variety or beauty, nothing in the creation is more contemptible or inſignificant. Yet paſſing from theſe to his hiſtory, and to the account of his powers, we muſt confeſs the very great injuſtice we do him from want of conſideration. We are obliged, with the greateſt ſurprize, to acknowledge, that thoſe huge animals, the elephant, the rhinoceros, the lion, and tyger, inhabiting the ſame woods, are ſtill vaſtly his inferiors, and that the appearance of this ſmall inſect, nay, his very ſound, though he is not ſeen, occaſions more trepidation, movement, and diſorder, both in the human and brute creation, than would whole herds of theſe monſtrous animals collected together, though their number was in a ten-fold proportion greater than it really is.

This inſect has not been deſcribed by any naturaliſt. It is in ſize very little larger than a bee, of a thicker proportion. As ſoon as this plague appears, and their buzzing is heard, all the cattle forſake their food, and run wildly about the plain, till they die, worn out with fatigue, fright, and hunger. No remedy remains but to leave the black earth, and haſten down to the ſands of Atbara, and there they remain while the rains laſt, this cruel enemy never daring to purſue them farther. Though the ſize of the camel is immenſe, his ſtrength vaſt, and his body covered with a thick ſkin, defended with ſtrong hair, yet ſtill he is not capable to ſuſtain the violent punctures the fly makes with his pointed proboſcis. He muſt loſe no time in removing to the ſands of Atbara; for, when once attacked by this fly, his body, head, and legs break out into large boſſes, which ſwell, break, and putrify, to the certain deſtruction of the creature.

Vegetable productions.] The *Papyrus*, which is a plant well known in Egypt, appears to have been early brought thither from Ethiopia. It is alſo found in Abyſſinia. *Baleſſar*, *Balm*, or *Balſam*, in alſo a native of Abyſſinia. The great value ſet upon this drug in the eaſt, remounts to very early ages. We know from ſcripture, the oldeſt hiſtory extant, as well as moſt infallible, that the Iſhmaelites, or Arabian carriers and merchants, trafficking with the India commodities, into Egypt, brought with them balm as part of the cargo.—The *Enſete* is an herbacious plant, which grows and comes to great perfection at Gondar, but it moſt abounds in that part of Maitſha, and Goutto weſt of the Nile, where there are large plantations of it, and is there, almoſt excluſive of every thing elſe, the food of the Galla inhabiting that province. When ſoft, like the turnip well boiled, if eaten with milk or butter, it is the beſt food: wholeſome, nouriſhing, and easily digested. The *Teff* is a grain commonly sown all over Abyssinia, where it seems to thrive equally on all sorts of ground; from it is made the bread which is commonly used throughout this country. The Abyssinians indeed have plenty of wheat, and some of it of an excellent quality. They likewise make as fine wheat-bread as any in the world, both for colour and taste; but the use of wheat-bread is chiefly confined to people of the first rank. The acacia tree is very common in Abyssinia, as are several other curious productions of the vegetable world, many of which are described in the appendix of our author, and illustrated by many elegant engravings, which will afford a very great entertainment to the curious botanist

LAKES.] The lake of Tzana (not to mention those of Gooderoo, and Court Ohha) is by much the largest expanse of water known in this country. Its extent, however, has been greatly exaggerated. Its greatest breadth is 35 miles, and its extent in length is 49. The Nile, by a current always visible, crosses the end of it. In the dry months, from October to March, the lake shrinks greatly in size; but after that all those rivers are full which are on every side of it, and fall into the lake, like radii drawn to a centre; and then it swells, and extends itself into the plain country, and has of course, a much larger surface.

There are about eleven inhabited islands in the lake. All these islands were formerly used as prisons for the great people, or for a voluntary retreat, on account of some disgust, or great misfortune, or as places of security to deposit their valuable effects during troublesome times.

CATARACTS OF THE NILE.] Omitting those of inferior note, we shall here give the reader some account of the great cataract of Alata, which was the most magnificent sight that Mr. Bruce ever beheld. The height has been rather exaggerared. The missionaries say the fall is about sixteen ells, or fifty feet. The measuring is, indeed, very difficult; but, by the position of long sticks, and poles of different lengths, at different heights of the rock, from the water's edge, Mr. Bruce thinks he may venture to say that it is nearer forty feet than any other measure. The river had been considerably increased by rains, and fell in one sheet of water, without any interval, above half an English mile in breadth with a force and noise that was truly terrible, and which stunned, and made him for a time, perfectly dizzy. A thick fume or haze, covered the fall all round, and hung over the course of the stream, both above and below, marking its tract, though the water is not seen. The river, though swelled with rain, preserved its natural clearness, and fell as far as he could discern, into a deep pool, or bason, in the solid rock, which was full, and in twenty different eddies to the very foot of the precipice; the stream, when it fell seeming part of it to run back with great fury upon the rock, as well as forward in the line of its course, raising a wave, or violent ebullition, by chaffing against each other.

Jerome Lobo pretends, that he has sat under the curve, or arch, made by the projectile force of the water rushing over the precipice. He says he sat calmly at the foot of it, and looking through the curve of the stream, as it was falling, saw a number of rainbows of inconceivable beauty in this extraordinary prism. This however, Mr. Bruce, without hesitation, avers to be a downright falsehood. A deep pool of water reaches to the very foot of the rock, and is in perpetual agitation. Now, allowing that there was a seat or bench, which there is not, in the middle of the pool, it is absolutely impossible, by any exertion of human strength, to have arrived at it. Although a very robust man, in the prime and vigour of life, and a hardy, practised indefatigable swimmer, Mr. Bruce is perfectly confident he could not have got to that seat from the shore through the quietest part of that bason. And, supposing the friar placed in his imaginary seat under the curve of that immense arch of water, he must have had a portion of firmness, more than falls to the share of ordinary men, and which is not likely to be acquired in a monastic life, to philosophise upon optics in such a situation, where every thing would seem to his dazzled eyes to be in motion, and the stream, in a noise like the loudest thunder, to make the solid rock (at least as to sense) shake to its very foundation, and threaten to tear every nerve to pieces, and to deprive one of other senses besides that of hearing. It was a most magnificent sight, that ages, added to the greatest length of human life, would not deface or eradicate from Mr. Bruce's memory; it struck him with a kind of stupor, and a total oblivion of where he was, and of every other sublunary concern. It was one of the most magnificent, stupendous sights in the creation.

Sources of the Nile.] The Agows of Damot pay divine honours to the Nile; they worship the river, and thousands of cattle have been offered, and still are offered, to the spirit supposed to reside at its sources. The village of Geesh, though not farther distant than 600 yards, is not in sight of the sources of the Nile. In the middle of a marsh near the bottom of the mountain of Geesh, arises a hillock of a circular form, about three feet from the surface of the marsh itself, though apparently founded much deeper in it. The diameter of this is something short of twelve feet; it is surrounded by a shallow trench, which collects the water, and voids it eastward; it is firmly built with sod or earthen turf, brought from the sides, and constantly kept in repair, and this is the altar upon which all their religious ceremonies are performed. In the middle of this altar is a hole, obviously made, or at least enlarged, by the hand of man. It is kept clear of grass or other aquatic plants, and the water in it is perfectly pure and limpid, but has no ebullition or motion of any kind discernible upon its surface. This mouth, or opening of the source, is some parts of an inch less than three feet in diameter, and the water stood about two inches from the lip or brim. The spring is about six feet six inches deep.

Ten feet distant from the first of these springs, a little to the west of south, is the sacred fountain, about eleven inches in diameter; but this is eight feet three inches deep. And about twenty feet distant from the first, is the third source, its mouth being something more than two feet large, and it is five feet eight inches deep. With a brass quadrant of three feet radius, he found the latitude to be 10° 59′ north; and by 10° 59′ 25″ in round numbers, for the exact latitude of the principal fountain of the Nile, though the Jesuits have supposed it 12° N. by a random guess. The longitude he ascertained to be 36° 55′ 30″ east of the meridian of Greenwich.

Causes of the inundations of the Nile.] The sun being nearly stationary for some days in the tropic of capricorn, the air there becomes so much rarefied, that the heavier winds, charged with watery particles, rush in upon it from the Atlantic on the west, and from the Indian Ocean on the east. Having thus gathered such a quantity of vapours as it were to a focus, the sun now puts them in motion, and drawing them after it in its rapid progress northward, on the 7th of January, for two years together, seemed to have extended its power to the atmosphere of Gondar, when, for the first time, there appeared in the sky white, dappled, thin clouds, the sun being then distant 34° from the zenith, without any one cloudy or dark speck having been seen for several months before. Advancing to the line with encreased velocity, and describing larger spirals, the sun brings on a few drops of rain at Gondar the 1st of March, being then diſtant 5° from the zenith; theſe are greedily abſorbed by the thirſty ſoil; and this ſeems to be the fartheſt extent of the ſun's influence capable of cauſing rain, which then only falls in large drops, and laſts but a few minutes: the rainy ſeaſon, however, begins moſt ſeriouſly upon its arrival at the zenith of every place, and theſe rains continue conſtant and increaſing after he has paſſed it, in his progreſs northward.

In April, all the rivers in Amhara, Begemder, and Laſta, firſt diſcoloured, and then beginning to ſwell, join the Nile, in the ſeveral parts of its courſe, neareſt them; the river then, from the height of its angle of inclination, forces itſelf through the ſtagnant lake without mixing with it. In the beginning of May, hundreds of ſtreams pour themſelves from Gojam, Damot, Maitſha, and Dembea, into the lake Tzana, which had become low by intenſe evaporation, but now begins to fill inſenſibly, and contributes a large quantity of water to the Nile, before it falls down the cataract of Alata. In the beginning of June, the ſun, having now paſſed all Abyſſinia, the rivers there are all full, and then is the time of the greateſt rains in Abyſſinia, while it is for ſome days, as it were, ſtationary in the tropic of Cancer.

Immediately after the ſun has paſſed the line, he begins the rainy ſeaſon to the ſouthward, ſtill as he approaches the zenith of each place: but the ſituation and neceſſities of this country being varied, the manner of promoting the inundation is changed. A high chain of mountains runs from above 6° ſouth all along the middle of the continent towards the Cape of Good Hope, and interſects the ſouthern part of the peninſula, nearly in the ſame manner that the river Nile does the northern. A ſtrong wind from the ſouth, ſtopping the progreſs of the condenſed vapours, daſhes them againſt the cold ſummits of this ridge of mountains, and forms many rivers which eſcape in the direction either eaſt or weſt, as the level preſents itſelf. If this is towards the weſt, they fall down the ſides of the mountains into the Atlantic, and if on the eaſt, into the Indian Ocean.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] GONDAR, the metropolis of Abyſſinia, is ſituated upon a hill of conſiderable height, the top of it nearly plain, on which the town is placed. It conſiſts of about ten thouſand families in time of peace; the houſes are chiefly of clay, the roofs thatched in the form of cones, which is always the conſtruction within the tropical rains. On the weſt end of the town is the king's houſe, formerly a ſtructure of conſiderable conſequence. It was a ſquare building flanked with ſquare towers. It was formerly four ſtories high, and from the top of it had a magnificent view of all the country ſouthward to the lake Tzana. Great part of this houſe is now in ruins, having been burnt at different times; but there is ſtill ample lodging in the two loweſt floors of it, the audience-chamber being above one hundred and twenty feet long.

The palace and all its contiguous buildings are ſurrounded by a ſubſtantial ſtone wall thirty feet high, with battlements upon the outer wall, and a parapet roof between the outer and inner, by which you can go along the whole, and look into the ſtreet. There appears to have been never any embraſures for cannon, and the four ſides of the wall are above an Engliſh mile and a half in length. Gondar, by a number of obſervations of the ſun and ſtars made by day and night, in the courſe of three years, with an aſtronomical quandrant of three feet radius, and two excellent teleſcopes, and by a mean of all their ſmall differences, is in N. lat. 12° 34′ 30″; and by many obſervations of the ſatellites of Jupiter, eſpecially the firſt, both in their immerſions and emerſions during that period, I concluded its longitude to be 37° 33′ 0″ eaſt from the meridian of Greenwich.

DIXAN is the firſt town in Abyſſinia, on the ſide of Taranta. Dixan is built on the top of a hill perfectly in form of a ſugarloaf; a deep valley ſurrounds it every where like a trench, and the road winds ſpirally up the hill till it ends among the houſes. It is true of Dixan, as of moſt frontier towns, that the bad people of both contiguous countries reſort thither. The town conſiſts of Moors and Chriſtians, and is very well peopled; yet the only trade of either of theſe ſects is a very extraordinary one, that of ſelling children. The Chriſtians bring ſuch as they have ſtolen in Abyſſinia to Dixan as to a ſure depoſit; and the Moors receive them there, and carry them to a certain market at Maſuah, whence they are ſent over to Arabia or India. The prieſts of the province of Tigré, eſpecially thoſe near the rock Damo, are openly concerned in this infamous practice. Dixan is in lat. 14° 57′ 55″ north, and lon. 40° 7′ 30″ eaſt of the meridian of Greenwich.

AXUM is ſuppoſed to have been once the capital of Abyſſinia, and its ruins are now very extenſive; but, like the cities of ancient times, conſiſt altogether of public buildings. In one ſquare, which ſeems to have been the centre of the town, there are forty obeliſks, none of which have any hieroglyphics upon them. They are all of one piece of granite, and, on the top of that which is ſtanding, there is a *patera*, exceedingly well carved, in the Greek taſte. Axum is watered by a ſmall ſtream, which flows all the year from a fountain in the narrow valley, where ſtand the rows of obeliſks. The ſpring is received into a magnificent baſon of 150 feet ſquare, and thence it is carried at pleaſure, to water the neighbouring gardens, where there is little fruit excepting pomegranates, neither are theſe very excellent. The latitude of this town is 14° 6′ 36″ north.

MASUAH. The houſes of this town, which is ſituated upon an iſland bearing the ſame name, on the Abyſſinian ſhore of the Red Sea, are in general built of poles and bent graſs, as in the towns of Arabia; but beſides theſe, there are about twenty of ſtone, ſix or eight of which are two ſtories each. N. lat. 15° 35′ 5″ E. long. 39° 36′ 30″.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] There is a conſiderable deal of trade carried on at Maſuah, narrow and confined as the iſland is, and violent and unjuſt as is the government. But it is all done in a ſlovenly manner, and for articles where a ſmall capital is inveſted. Property here is too precarious to riſk a venture in valuable commodities, where the hand of power enters into every tranſaction.

Gondar and all the neighbouring country depend for the neceſſaries of life, cattle, honey, butter, wheat, hides, wax, and a number of ſuch articles, upon the Agows, who inhabit a province in which the ſources of the Nile are found, and which province is no where 60 miles in length, nor half that in breadth. Theſe Agows come conſtantly in ſucceſſion, a thouſand or fifteen hundred at a time, loaded with theſe commodities to the capital.

It may naturally occur, that, in a long carriage, ſuch as that of a hundred miles in ſuch a climate, butter muſt melt, and be in a ſtate of fuſion, conſequently, very near putrefaction: this is prevented by the root of an herb, called Moc-moco, yellow in colour, and in ſhape nearly reſembling a carrot; this they bruiſe and mix with their butter, and a very ſmall quantity preſerves it freſh for a conſiderable time.

RELIGION.] Mr. Bruce informs us, from the annals of Abyſſinia, that in the time of Solomon all this country was converted to Judaiſm, and the government of the church and ſtate modelled according to what was then in uſe at Jeruſalem.

Some ecclesiastical writers, rather from attachment to particular systems, than from any conviction that the opinion they espouse is truth, would persuade us, that the conversion of Abyssinia to Christianity happened in the days of the apostles: but it appears that this was effected by the labours of Frumentius (the apostle of the Abyssinians) in the year of Christ 333, according to our account.

Their first bishop, Frumentius, being ordained about the year 333, and instructed in the religion of the Greeks of the church of Alexandria, by St. Athanasius, then sitting in the chair of St. Mark, it follows that the true religion of the Abyssinians, which they received on their conversion to Christianity, is that of the Greek Church. They receive the holy sacrament in both kinds, in unleavened bread, and in the grape bruised with the husk together as it grows, so that it is a kind of marmalade, and is given in a flat spoon. They observe also circumcision.

HISTORY.] As the accounts of kings and princes of remote ages are not always entertaining, and as the history of so barbarous and uncivilised a people will, we presume, afford but small amusement to our readers, whatever satisfaction they may have received from surveying the manners and customs of the people, and the natural history of the country; we shall therefore make no farther apology for omitting the account of the annals of Abyssinia, but refer those who have any desire of information upon this subject, to the second volume of the Travels of our adventurous author, where he will find a very ample detail through more than 700 pages of a ponderous quarto.

FEZZAN, BORNOU, AND CASHNA.

IT having been long a subject of lamentation that Europeans know very little, if any thing, of the *interior districts* of Africa, we are happy to find that a number of learned and opulent individuals have formed themselves into a society for the purpose of exploring them. The association was formed on the 9th of June, in the year 1788; and on the same day a committee of its members, viz. *lord Rawdon, the bishop of Llandaff, sir Joseph Banks, Mr. Beaufoy, and Mr. Stuart*, were invested with the direction of its funds, the management of the correspondence, and the choice of the persons to whom the geographical mission was to be assigned. Persuaded of the importance of the object which the association had in view, their committee lost no time in executing their plan which it had formed. Two gentlemen were recommended to them; and appearing to be eminently qualified for making the projected researches, they were chosen. One was a *Mr. Ledyard*; the other a *Mr. Lucas*.

Such a person as Mr. Ledyard was formed by nature for the object in contemplation, and were we unacquainted with the sequel, we should congratulate the society on being so fortunate as to find such a man for one of their missionaries: but the reader will soon be acquainted with the melancholy circumstance to which we allude.

'From two such geographical missionaries (observes a very respectable literary journalist *) much information was no doubt expected; and though the views of the society are not yet fully answered, the communications which it has received, are of a nature which will excite, though not fully gratify, the curiosity of geographers.

'Mr. Ledyard undertook, at his own desire, the difficult and perilous

* Monthly Review, new Series, vol. ii. p. 63.

task of traversing from east to west in the latitude attributed to the Niger, the widest part of the continent of Africa. On this bold adventure he left London, June 30, 1788, and arrived at Cairo on the 19th of August.

'Hence, he transmitted such accounts to his employers, as manifest him to have been a traveller who observed, reflected, and compared; and such was the information which he collected here from the travelling slave-merchants, and from others, respecting the interior districts of Africa, that he was impatient to explore them. He wrote to the committee, that his next communication would be from Sennaar (600 miles to the south of Cairo): but death, attributed to various causes, arrested him at the commencement of his researches, and disappointed the hopes which were entertained of his projected journey.

'Endowed with a soul for discovery, and formed by nature for achievements of hardihood and peril, the death of Mr. Ledyard must be considered as a public misfortune.

'With a mixture of regret and disappointment, we turn from poor Ledyard, to notice Mr. Lucas's communications, which occupy the greatest part of the volume published by the association. He embarked for Tripoli, October 18, 1788, with instructions to proceed over the Desert of Zahara to Fezzan, to collect, and to transmit by way of Tripoli, whatever intelligence the people of Fezzan, or the traders thither, might be able to afford respecting the interior of the continent; and to return by the way of Gambia, or the coast of Guinea.

'Instructions to undertake great enterprizes are more easily given than executed. So Mr Lucas found; and so the reader, to his disappointment, will find likewise. Only a part of the plan was this geographical missionary able to carry into execution. He sets out, indeed, mounted on a handsome mule, presented to him by the bey, the bashaw's eldest son, in company with shereefs, for the kingdom of Fezzan; resolved, we will suppose, to penetrate from Tripoli even unto Gambia: but his peregrinations, which began Feb. 1, 1789, terminated at Mesurata, on Feb. 7.

'Deprived of visiting Fezzan, and the other inland districts of Africa, Mr. Lucas solicits the information of his fellow travellers, and transmits to the society the result of his conferences. A memoir compiled in this way, from the reports of a shereef Imhammed, will not be deemed very satisfactory; and yet it certainly merits consideration, as it is, in part, corroborated by other testimonies.'

Having no other sources of information, however, we must, for the present, content ourselves with these communications. From the various conferences of Mr. Lucas with the shereef Imhammed, the following narrative is composed:

'It describes the kingdom of Fezzan to be a small circular domain, placed in a vast wilderness, as an island in the midst of the ocean, containing near an hundred towns and villages, of which Mourzouk is the capital, distant, south from Mesurata, about 390 miles. In this kingdom are to be seen some venerable remains of ancient magnificence, some districts of remarkable fertility, and numerous smoking lakes, producing a species of fossil alkali called *trona*. Agriculture and pasturage are the principal occupations of the Fezanners; they do not appear to have any coin; their medium of commerce is gold-dust; their houses, or rather huts, are built of clay, and are covered with branches of trees, on which earth is laid. As rain never falls at Fezzan, this covering is a sufficient protection. Their dress resembles that of the Moors of Barbary: but, during the heats of summer, which are intense, they only wear drawers, and a cap to protect their heads from the immediate action of the sun. To these, many particulars are added of their perſons, diſeaſes, and mode of cure; of their religion, government, taxes, animal and vegetable productions. Their ſovereign, who is a tributary of the baſhaw of Tripoli, adminiſters impartial juſtice.

'The narrative proceeds to ſtate, that ſouth-eaſt of Mourzook, at the diſtance of 150 miles, is a ſandy deſert, 200 miles wide; beyond which are the mountains of Tibeſti, inhabited by ferocious ſavages, tributary to Fezzan. The vallies between the mountains are ſaid to be fertiliſed by innumerable ſprings, to abound with corn, and to be celebrated for their breed of camels. The tribute of the Tibeſtins to the king of Fezzan, is twenty camel-loads of ſenna.

'This kingdom is inconſiderable, when compared with the two great empires of Bornou and Caſhna, which lie ſouth of Fezzan, occupying that vaſt region which ſpreads itſelf from the river of the Antelopes for 1200 miles weſtward, and includes a great part of the Niger's courſe. Caſhna, we are informed, contains a thouſand towns and villages; and in Bornou, which is ſtill more conſiderable, thirty languages are ſaid to be ſpoken. The latter is repreſented as a fertile and beautiful country; its capital being ſituated within a day's journey of the river *Wod-el-Gazel*, which is loſt in the ſandy waſtes of the vaſt deſert of Bilma, and is inhabited by herdſmen, dwelling, like the old patriarchs, in tents, and whoſe wealth conſiſts in their cattle *. (Bornou, or Bernoa, is a word ſignifying the Land of Noah; for the Arabs conceive, that, on the retiring of the deluge, its mountains received the ark.) Though they cultivate various ſorts of grain, the uſe of the plough is unknown; and the hoe is the only inſtrument of huſbandry. Here grapes, apricots, and pomegranates, together with limes and lemons, and two ſpecies of melons, the water and the muſk, are produced in large abundance; but one of the moſt valuable of its vegetables is a tree called kedeyna, which, in form and height, reſembles the olive, is like the lemon in its leaf, and bears a nut, of which the kernel and the ſhell are both in great eſtimation, the firſt as a fruit, the laſt on account of the oil which it furniſhes when bruiſed, and which ſupplies the lamps of the people of Bornou with a ſubſtitute for the oil of olives, P. 139. Bees, it is added, are ſo numerous, that the wax is often thrown away as an article of no value in the market. Many other particulars are added, for which we muſt refer to the work. The population is deſcribed by the expreſſion, *a countleſs multitude*. We ſhall paſs over the nature of their religion, which is Mohammedan; of their government, which is an elective monarchy; and the ſingular mode of their electing a new king from among the children of the deceaſed ſovereign: but the account of the preſent ſultan, his wives, and his children (p. 227) is too curious not to be exhibited.

'The preſent ſultan, whoſe name is Alli, is a man of an unoſtentatious, plain appearance; for he ſeldom wears any other dreſs than the common blue ſhirt of cotton or ſilk, and the ſilk or muſlin turban, which form the uſual dreſs of the country. Such, however, is the magnificence of his ſeraglio, that the ladies who inhabit it are ſaid to be 500 in number, and he himſelf is deſcribed as the reputed father of 350 children, of whom 300 are males; a diſproportion which naturally ſuggeſts the idea that the mother, preferring to the gratification of natural affection the joy of ſeeing herſelf the ſuppoſed parent of a future candidate for the empire, ſometimes exchanges her female child for the male offspring of a ſtranger.

'We are told that fire-arms, though not unknown to the people of Bornou, are not poſſeſſed by them.

* Horſes and horned cattle, goats, ſheep, and camels, are the common animals of the country.

'South-east from Bornou, lies the extensive kingdom of Begarmee; and, beyond this kingdom, are said to be several tribes of negroes, idolaters, and feeders on human flesh. These, we are told, are annually invaded by the Begarmeese; and when they have taken as many prisoners as their purpose may require, they drive the captives, like cattle, to Begarmee. It is farther said, that if any of them, exhausted by fatigue, happen to linger in their pace, one of the horsemen seizes on the oldest, and cutting off his arm, uses it as a club to drive on the rest.

'We are not much disposed to give credit to this relation. That the negroes, who are sold for slaves, are different from the other Africans, is not probable; and that they should be driven along with the mangled limbs of their associates, utterly exceeds belief.

'The empire of Cashna bears a great resemblance to that of Bornou.

'After perusing what is here related of the extent, population, fertility, manufactures, and commerce of these regions, we may be permitted to wonder at their having remained altogether unknown to Europeans. We cannot but suspect considerable exaggerations. That the interior parts of Africa are peopled, the caravans which go from Cairo and Tripoli, and which are often absent three years, sufficiently evince: but that they are divided into regular and civilized states, may be a question. *A thousand towns and villages*, in one empire, and *thirty different languages* spoken in the other, manifest a disposition in the shereef Imhammed to enlargement, or, at least, to retail loose reports. That they should be acquainted with, yet not possess, fire-arms, nor make any attempt to navigate the Niger, nor even to take the fish that abound in its waters, but little accords with the history of their commerce, and of their progress in manufactures.

'Let us, however, make all possible deductions, and be ever so incredulous as to some particulars, the prospect which this narrative opens to us of the interior of Africa (the greater part of which we have been accustomed to consider as consigned, by nature, to perpetual sterility and desolation) must afford great pleasure; and though, as we have already remarked, it is far from being satisfactory, or from having answered the object of the mission, it may be regarded by the society as that sort of evidence which should encourage them to persevere, and ought to induce Europeans, without delay, actually to explore the central provinces of the African continent.'

SIERRA LEONE, AND BULAM.

A Settlement, from the purest motives of humanity, was formed at Sierra Leone, upon the coast of Africa (in 8° 12′ N. Lat. and about 12° W. Lon.) under the patronage of a very respectable society of gentlemen in London, in the year 1791. The benevolent purposes for which it was intended, are to introduce the light of knowledge, and the comforts of civilization into Africa; and to cement and perpetuate the most confidential union between the European colony and the natives of that country.

The company has ordered experiments to be made, concerning the growth of sugars in their settlements, which have met with such success, as to encourage a hope that the present high price of this commodity may be soon reduced, by a rivalry with the West India merchants. This benevolent colony proceeds with diligence in clearing of land, and building of houses. Some delay was occasioned in obtaining the united consent of the surrounding chiefs, which was at length procured, and the dispositions of king Naimbanna appear to be very friendly. The climate is found to be more salubrious than was expected. We wish success to the settlement, established upon principles that do honour to humanity.

A settlement of a similar nature was formed upon the island of Bulam, on the same coast, to the eastward of the island of Bisgos, under the direction of Mr. Dalrymple. But this is now entirely relinquished. A great part of the colonists has been massacred by the natives of the shore at the mouth of the river Gambia, who were accustomed to make annual plantations of rice in Bulam; and it was certainly a gross error that this circumstance was not before discovered, and a formal bargain of the isle made with the Africans. The surviving colonists have taken refuge among their countrymen at Sierra Leone; and Mr. Dalrymple, the governor, has returned to England.

At Sierra Leone, on the contrary, where justice and prudence were observed in the acquisition, the colonists are on the happiest terms of friendship with the natives; and make every possible progress in completing their buildings, and laying out their lots of land for cultivation. Only one death has happened amongst the white people since the date of the last dispatches: those who were then ill, were either recovered, or in a convalescent state; and the physician reports that the mode adopted by him for treating the fever of the climate, had been attended with so much success, that he saw little reason to be more apprehensive of its future effects than of those of an ague in England. Mr. Clarkson, the governor, is well esteemed in the colony.

OF AFRICA, from the Tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good-Hope.

See the Table and Map.

THIS immense territory is, comparatively speaking, very little known; there is no modern traveller that has penetrated into the interior parts; so that we are ignorant not only of the bounds, but even of the names of several inland countries. In many material circumstances, the inhabitants of this extensive continent agree with each other. If we except the people of Abyssinia, who are tawny, and profess a mixture of Christianity, Judaism, and Paganism, they are all of a black complexion: in their religion, except on the sea-coasts, which have been visited and settled by strangers, they are Pagans: and the form of government is every where monarchical. Few princes, however, possess a very extensive jurisdiction; for as the natives of this part of Africa are grossly ignorant in all the arts of utility or refinement, they are little acquainted with one another; and generally united in small societies, each governed by its own prince. In Abyssinia, indeed, as well as in Congo, Loango, and Angola, we are told of powerful monarchs; but, on examination, it is found that the authority of these princes stands on a precarious footing, each tribe or separate body of their subjects being under the influence of a petty chieftain of their own, styled *Negus*, to whose commands, however contrary to those of the *Negascha Negascht*, or king of kings, they are always ready to submit. This indeed must always be the case among rude nations, where the art of governing, like all others, is in a very simple and imperfect state. In the succession to the throne, force generally prevails over right; and an uncle, a brother, or other collateral relation, is on this account commonly preferred to the descendents whether male or female.

The fertility of a country so prodigiously extensive, might be supposed more various than we find it is, in fact, there is no medium in this part of Africa with regard to the advantage of soil; it is either perfectly barren, or extremely fertile. This arises from the intense heat of the sun, which, where it meets with sufficient moisture, produces the utmost luxuriancy; and in those countries where there are few rivers, reduces the surface of the earth to a barren sand. Of this sort are the countries of Anian and Zahara, which for want of water, and consequently of all other necessaries, are reduced to perfect deserts, as the name of the latter denotes. In those countries, on the other hand, where there is plenty of water, and particularly where the rivers overflow the land, part of the year, as in Abyssinia, the productions of nature, both of the animal and vegetable kinds, are found in the highest perfection and greatest abundance. The countries of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Batua, Truticui, Monomotapa, Casati, and Mehenemugi, are extremely rich in gold and silver. The baser metals likewise are found in these, and many other parts of Africa. But the persons of the natives make the most considerable article in the produce and traffic of this miserable quarter of the globe.

On the Guinea, or western coast, the English trade to James' Fort, and other settlements near and up the river Gambia, where they exchange their woollen and linen manufactures, their hard ware and spirituous liquors, for the persons of the natives. Among the negroes, a man's wealth consists in the number of his family, whom he sells like so many cattle, and often at an inferior price. Gold and ivory, next to the slave trade, form the principal branches of African commerce. These are carried on from the same coast, where the Dutch and French, as well as English, have their settlements for the purpose. The Portuguese are in possession of the east and west coast of Africa, from the tropic of Capricorn to the equator; which immense tract they became masters of by their successive attempts, and happy discovery and navigation of the Cape of Good Hope. From the coast of Zanguebar, on the eastern side, they trade not only for the articles above mentioned, but likewise for several others, as senna and aloes, civet, ambergrise, and frankincense. The Dutch have settlements towards the southern parts of the continent, in the country called Caffraria, or the land of the Hottentots, particularly Cape Town, which is well settled and fortified; where their ships bound for India usually put in, and trade with the natives for their cattle, in exchange for which they give them spirituous liquors.

COUNTRY OF THE HOTTENTOTS.

DURING the thirty-six hours which I spent (says Monsieur Vaillant) with the Gonaqua Hottentots, I had time to make several observations concerning them. I remarked that they made a clapping noise with their tongue, like the rest of the Hottentots. When the accost any one, they stretch forth the hand, saying, *Tabé*, I salute you. This word and ceremony, which are employed by the Caffrees, are not used by the Hottentots, properly so called,

This affinity of customs, manners, and even conformation; their being so near Great Caffraria, and the accounts I afterwards received, convinced me these *bordes* of Gonaquas, who equally resemble the Caffrees and the Hottentots, must be a mixed breed, produced by these two nations. The dress of the men, arranged with more symmetry, has the same shape as that of the Hottentos; but as the Gonaquas are a little taller, they make their mantles of calves' instead of sheeps' skins; they are both called *kross*. Several

ral of them wear, hanging from their necks, a bit of ivory, or very white sheep-bone, and this contrast of the two colours produces a good effect, and is very becoming.

When the weather is excessively hot, the men lay aside every part of their dress that is superfluous, and retain only what they name their *jackals*. This is a piece of skin of the animal so called, with which they cover what nature bids them conceal, and which is fastenen to their girdle. This veil, however, negligently arranged, may be considered as an useless appendage, and is of very little service to their modesty. The women, much fonder of dress than the men, employ more care in adorning their persons. They wear a *kross* like the latter, but the apron which conceals their sex is larger than those of the Hottentots. During the great heats, they retain only this apron, with a skin which descends, behind, from their girdle to the calf of the leg: young girls below the age of nine years, go perfectly naked; when they attain to that age, they wear nothing but a small apron.

Whatever may be the extent of the deserts of Africa, we must not form any calculations respecting its population from those innumerable swarms of blacks which are found on the west, and which border all the coast of the ocean, from the Canary isles to the environs of the Cape of Good Hope. There is certainly no proportion to enable us to hazard even a conjecture; since by a trade approved by a few, and held in detestation by the greater number, the barbarous navigators of Europe have induced these negroes, by the most villainous attractions, to give up their prisoners, or those who are inferior to them in strength. As their wants encreased, they have become inhuman and perfidious beings; the prince has sold his subjects; the mother has sold her son; and nature, as an accomplice, has rendered her prolific.

This disgusting and execrable traffic is, however, still unknown in the interior parts of the continent. The desert is really a desert; and it is only at certain distances that one meets with a few *hordes*, that are not numerous, and who live on the fruits of the earth, and the produce of their cattle. After finding one horde, one must travel a great way to find another. The heat of the climate, the dryness of the sands, the barrenness of the earth, a scarcity of water, rugged and rocky mountains, ferocious animals; and, besides these, the humour of the Hottentots, a little phlegmatic, and their cold temperament—are all obstacles to propagation. When a father has six children, it is accounted a phenomenon.

The country of the Gonaques, into which I penetrated, did not therefore contain three thousand people, in an extent of thirty or forty leagues. These people did not resemble those degenerated and miserable Hottentots who pine in the heart of the Dutch colonies, contemptible and despised inhabitants, who bear no marks of their ancient origin, but an empty name; and who enjoy, at the expence of their liberty, only a little peace, purchased at a dear rate, by the excessive labour to which they are subjected on the plantations, and by the despotism of their chiefs, who are always sold to government. I had here (continues M. Vaillant) an opportunity of admiring a free and brave people, valuing nothing but independence; never obeying any impulse foreign to nature, and calculated only to destroy their magnanimous, free, and truly philanthropic character.

The huts, constructed like those of the Hottentots in the colonies, were eight or nine feet in diameter, and were covered with ox or sheep-skins, but more commonly with mats. They had only one opening, very narrow and low; and it was in the middle of their hut that the family kindled their fire. The thick smoke with which these kennels were filled, and which had no other vent but the door, added to the ſtench which they always retain, would have ſtifled any European who might have had the courage to remain in them two minutes; cuſtom, however, renders all this ſupportable to theſe ſavages.

The two colours for which they ſhow the greateſt fondneſs are red and black. The firſt is compoſed of a kind of ochry earth, which is found in ſeveral places of the country, and which they mix and dilute with greaſe; this earth has a great reſemblance to brick-duſt, or tiles reduced to powder. Their black is nothing elſe than ſoot, or the charcoal of tender wood. Some women, indeed, are contented with painting only the prominence of the cheeks; but in general they daub over their whole body, in compartments, varied with a certain degree of ſymmetry: and this part of their dreſs requires no ſmall length of time. Theſe two colours, ſo much admired by the Hottentots, are always perfumed with the powder of the *boughou*, which is not very agreeable to the ſmell of an European. A Hottentot would perhaps find our odours and eſſences no leſs inſupportable; but the *boughou* has over our rouge and paſtes the advantage of not being pernicious to the ſkin, of not attacking and injuring the lungs; and the female Hottentot, who is acquainted with neither amber, muſk, nor benjamin, never knows what it is to be oppreſſed by vapours, ſpaſms, and the head-ache. The men never paint their faces, but they uſe a preparation made of both colours mixed, to paint the upper lip as far as the noſtrils; by which they enjoy the advantage of continually inhaling the odour of the ſubſtance employed for this purpoſe. Young girls ſometimes favour their lovers ſo far as to apply this paint for them under the noſe; and on this point they ſhow a kind of coquetry, which has a very powerful influence over the heart of a Hottentot novice. The reader, however, muſt not infer, that the Hottentot women pay ſo much attention to dreſs, as to neglect thoſe daily and uſeful occupations to which nature and their uſages call them. Separated from Europe by an immenſity of ſea, and from the Dutch colonies by deſert mountains and impaſſable rocks, too much communication with theſe people has not yet led them to the exceſſes of our depravation. On the contrary, when they have the happineſs of being mothers, nature addreſſes them in a different language; they aſſume, more than in any other country, a ſpirit ſuitable to their taſte, and readily give themſelves up to thoſe cares which ſhe imperiouſly requires of them.

They are remarkably fond of hunting, and in this exerciſe they diſplay great dexterity. Beſides gins and ſnares, which they place at convenient ſpots to catch large animals, they lie in wait for them alſo, attack them as ſoon as they appear, and kill them with their poiſoned arrows, or their aſſagays, which are a kind of lances. On the firſt view of their arrows, one would not ſuſpect how deſtructive weapons they are: their ſmallneſs renders them ſo much the more dangerous, as it is impoſſible to perceive and follow them with the eye, and conſequently to avoid them. The ſlighteſt wound which they make, always proves mortal, if the poiſon reaches the blood, and if the fleſh be torn. The ſureſt remedy is to amputate the wounded part, if it be a limb, but if the wound be in the body, death is unavoidable. The aſſagay is generally a very feeble weapon in the hands of a Hottentot; but, beſides this, as its length renders it not dangerous, for it may be ſeen cleaving the air, it is not difficult to avoid it. Such are the means for attacking or defending uſed by ſome of the ſavage nations of Africa. They may perhaps incite the indignation of an European, and induce him to tax theſe people with barbarity; but it muſt be remembered that the Europeans, before they employed that terrible thunder which in a moment cauſes ſo much devastation and ruin, had no other arms but those made of steel, and knew also the method of sending a double death to the enemy.

The Hottentots have not the least notion of the elements of agriculture; they neither sow nor plant, nor do they even reap any crop. When they choose to give themselves the trouble, they make an intoxicating liquor, composed of honey and a certain root, which they suffer to ferment in a certain quantity of water. This liquor, which is a kind of hydromel, is not their usual beverage, nor do they ever keep a stock of it by them. Whatever they have, they drink all at once, and frequently regale themselves in this manner at certain periods. They smoke the leaves of a plant which they name *dagha*, and not *daka*, as some authors have written. This plant is not indigenous; it is the hemp of Europe. There are some of the savages who prefer these leaves to tobacco; but the greatest part of them are fond of mixing both together. They set less value on the pipes brought from Europe, than on those which they fabricate themselves; the former appear to them to be too small.

Though they rear abundance of sheep and oxen (continues our author) they seldom kill the latter, unless some accident happens to them, or old age has rendered them unfit for service. Their principal nourishment, therefore, is the milk of their ewes and cows, besides which, they have the produce of their hunting excursions, and from time to time they kill a sheep. To fatten their animals they employ a process, which, though not practised in Europe, is no less efficacious, and has this peculiar advantage, that it requires no care. They bruise, between two flat stones, those parts which we deprive them of by the knife; and when thus compressed they acquire in time a prodigious bulk, and become a most delicate morsel, when they have resolved to sacrifice the animal.

Those oxen which they intend for carrying burdens must be broke and trained very early to the service; otherwise they would become absolutely untractable. On this account, when the animal is still young, they pierce the cartilage which separates the nostrils, and thrust through the hole a piece of stick about eight or ten inches in length, and almost an inch in diameter. The task of milking the cows and the ewes belongs to the women: and, as they never beat or torment them, they are surprisingly tractable.

Of their sheep and kine each village hath one common herd; every inhabitant taking it in his turn to be herdsman. This charge requires many precautions, very different from those which are taken by our herdsmen, beasts of prey being much more numerous and fierce in the southern parts of Africa than in Europe. Lions, indeed, are not very common; but there are elephants, rhinoceroses, leopards, tygers, hyænas, and several kinds of wolves, more destructive than our's, together with many other furious animals that abound in the forests, and occasionally make excursions towards the Cape, and destroy the tame cattle. To prevent these misfortunes, it is the business of the herdsman to go, or send, every day round his district, in order to discover if any beast of prey be lurking in that quarter. In which case, he assembles the whole village together, and makes his report; when a party of the stoutest among them arm themselves with javelins and poisoned arrows, and follow the person who may have discovered the beast, to the cave or covert where he is lodged. Here they arrange themselves in two lines; the herdsman entering the cave, and endeavouring to provoke the beast to follow him out, where he is inevitably destroyed.

These savages measure the year by the epochs of drought and rainy weather. This division is common to all the inhabitants of the tropical regions, and it is subdivided into moons; but they never count the days, if they exceed ten, that is to say, the number of their fingers. Beyond that, they mark the day or the time by ſome remarkable epoch: for example, an extraordinary ſtorm, an elephant killed, an infectious diſorder among the cattle, an emigration, &c. The different parts of the day they diſtinguiſh by the courſe of the ſun; and they will tell you, pointing with their finger, he was *there* when I departed, and *here* when I arrived. This method is far from being exact; but, notwithſtanding its want of preciſion, it is almoſt ſufficient for theſe people, who, having no appointments of gallantry, no law-ſuits to attend, no perfidies to commit, no ſcandal to propagate, no occaſion meanly to cringe before ignorant patrons, and no new play to damn, calmly behold the ſun finiſh his courſe, and are under very little uneaſineſs whether twenty thouſand clocks bring miſery to one, and happineſs to another.

A ſenſe of delicacy makes the Hottentots keep themſelves ſeparate from others when they are ſick. They are then ſeldom ſeen, and it would appear that they are aſhamed of having loſt their health. It never enters their thoughts to expoſe themſelves in public for the purpoſe of exciting pity. This is a forced method, but uſeleſs in a country where every body is compaſſionate.

When a Hottentot dies, he is buried in his worſt kroſs, and the limbs are diſpoſed in ſuch a manner that the whole body is covered. The relations then tranſport it to a certain diſtance from the horde, and diſpoſing it in a pit dug for this purpoſe, and which is never deep, cover it with earth, and then with ſtones, if any are to be found in the neighbourhood. Such a mauſoleum proves but a very weak defence againſt the attacks of the jackal and the hyæna: the body indeed is ſoon dug up and devoured. However badly this laſt duty may be diſcharged, the Hottentots are not much to be blamed, when we call to mind the funeral ceremonies of the ancient and celebrated Parſis, ſtill attached to the cuſtom of expoſing their dead on the tops of high towers, or in open cemeteries, in order that the crows and the vultures may feed upon them and carry them away in morſels. The children, and, failing them, the neareſt relations of the deceaſed, take poſſeſſion of whatever is left; but the quality of a chief is not hereditary. He is always appointed by the horde, and his power is limited. In their councils his advice prevails, if it be judged good; if not, no regard is paid to it. When they are about to go to war, they know neither rank nor diviſions; each attacks or defends after his own manner; the moſt intrepid march in the van; and, when victory declares itſelf, they do not beſtow upon one man the honour of an action which has proved ſucceſsful by the courage of all: it is the whole nation that triumphs.

Of all the people whom I ever ſaw (obſerves our author) the Gonaquas are the only nation that can be conſidered as free; but they will perhaps be ſoon obliged to remove to a greater diſtance, or receive laws from the Dutch government. All the land to the eaſt being, in general, good, the planters endeavour to extend their poſſeſſions in that quarter as much as they can, and their avarice doubtleſs will ſome day ſucceed. Miſery muſt then be the portion of theſe happy and peaceable people; and every trace of their liberty will be deſtroyed by maſſacres and invaſions. Thus have all thoſe hordes mentioned by old authors been treated; and, by being often diſmembered and weakened, they are now reduced to a ſtate of abſolute dependence on the Dutch. The exiſtence of the Hottentots, their names, and their hiſtory, will therefore in time be accounted fabulous; unleſs ſome traveller, who may poſſeſs curioſity enough to induce him to diſcover their remains, ſhould have the courage to penetrate into the remote deſerts inhabited by the great Nimiguas, where rocks more and more hardened by time, and old and barren mountains, do not produce a ſingle plant worthy to engage the attention of the ſpeculative botaniſt.

Some old authors have ſaid that the families of the ſavages ſleep all promiſcuouſly together in the ſame hut: and are neither acquainted with difference of age, nor that invincible horror which ſeparates beings connected by blood: this has led ſome to the moſt infamous ſuſpicions. Yes, the whole family inhabit the ſame hut; the father lies by the ſide of his daughter, and the mother by the ſon; but on the return of Aurora, each riſes with a pure heart, and without having occaſion to bluſh before the Author of all Beings, or any of the creatures whom he has marked with the ſeal of his reſemblance. A ſavage is neither a brute nor a barbarian.

It is neceſſary in this narration to take notice of that diſguſting apron of the Hottentot women, which has long made a figure in hiſtory. It is ſtill faſhionable among a certain horde. I ſay it is faſhionable (obſerves our author); for, inſtead of being the gift of nature, it ought to be conſidered as one of the moſt monſtrous refinements ever invented by I know not what coquetry, altogether peculiar to a certain ſmall corner of the world. This ſingularity is nothing elſe but a prolongation of the nymphæ, occaſioned by weights ſuſpended from them They may hang down about nine inches, more or leſs, according to the age of the perſon, or the aſſiduous care which is beſtowed on this ſingular decoration.

A phyſiognomiſt, or, if the reader pleaſes, a modern wit, would entertain his company by aſſigning to the Hottentot, in the ſcale of beings, a place between a man and the ourang-outang. I cannot, however, conſent to this ſyſtematic arrangement; the qualities which I eſteem in him will never ſuffer him to be degraded ſo far; and I have found his figure ſufficiently beautiful, becauſe I experienced the goodneſs of his heart. It muſt indeed be allowed, that there is ſomething peculiar in his features, which in a certain degree ſeparates him from the generality of mankind. His cheek-bones are exceedingly prominent; ſo that his face being very broad in that part, and the jaw-bones, on the contrary, extremely narrow, his viſage continues ſtill decreaſing even to the point of the chin. This configuration gives him an air of lankneſs, which makes his head appear very much diſproportioned, and too ſmall for his full and plump body. His flat noſe riſes ſcarcely half an inch at its greateſt elevation; and his noſtrils, which are exceſſively wide, often exceed in height the ridge of his noſe. His mouth is large and furniſhed with ſmall teeth, well enamelled and perfectly white: his eyes, very beautiful and open, incline a little towards the noſe, like thoſe of the Chineſe: and to the ſight and touch his hair has the reſemblance of wool; it is very ſhort, curls naturally, and in colour is as black as ebony. He has very little hair, yet he employs no ſmall care to pull out by the roots part of what he has; but the natural thinneſs of his eyebrows ſaves him from this trouble in that part. Though he has no beard but upon the upper lip, below the noſe, and at the extremity of the chin, he never fails to pluck it out as ſoon as it appears. This gives him an effeminate look; which, joined to the natural mildneſs of his character, deſtroys that commanding fierceneſs common to all men in a ſtate of nature, and which has acquired them the proud title of kings. The women, with more delicacy of features, exhibit the ſame characteriſtic marks in their figure: they are equally well made. Their breaſts, admirably placed, have a moſt beautiful form while in the bloom of youth; and their hands are ſmall, and their feet exceedingly well ſhaped, though they never wear ſandals. The ſound of their voice is ſoft; and their idiom, paſſing through the throat, is not deſtitute of harmony. When they ſpeak, they employ a great many geſtures, which give power and graceſulneſs to their arms.

The Hottentots, being naturally timid, are consequently not at all an enterprising people. Their phlegmatic coolness, and their serious looks, give them an air of reserve, which they never lay aside, even at the most joyful moments; while, on the contrary, all other black or tawny nations give themselves up to pleasure with the liveliest joy, and without any restraint.

A profound indifference to the affairs of life inclines them very much to inactivity and indolence: the keeping of their flocks, and the care of procuring a subsistence, are the only objects that occupy their thoughts. They never follow hunting as sportsmen, but like people oppressed and tormented by hunger. In short, forgetting the past, and being under no uneasiness for the future, they are struck only with the present; and it is that which alone engages their attention.

They are, however (observes M. Vaillant) the best, the kindest, and the most hospitable of people. Whoever travels among them may be assured of finding food and lodging; and though they will receive presents, yet they never ask for any thing. If the traveller has a long journey to accomplish; and if they learn from the information he requires that there are no hopes of his soon meeting with other hordes, that which he is going to quit supply him with provisions as far as their circumstances will allow, and with every thing else necessary for his continuing his journey, and reaching the place of his destination. Such are these people, or at least such did they appear to me, in all the innocence of manners, and of a pastoral life. They excite the idea of mankind in a state of infancy.

CAFFRARIA.

THE country known by the general denomination of Caffraria, is a very extensive region, bounded on the north by Negroland and Abyssinia; on the west by part of Guinea, Congo, and the sea; on the south by the Cape of Good Hope; and on the east by the sea. It is divided into several territories and kingdoms, of which little is known, and is computed to be 700 miles long and 660 broad.

We shall give a more particular description of the people from two modern writers; the first celebrated for his botanical knowledge; the other for his taste in natural history, but more especially for his very entertaining and interesting travels into the interior parts of Africa, which, it is hoped, will not prove unacceptable to the reader.

The men among the Caffrees, says lieutenant Paterson, are from five feet ten inches to six feet high, and well proportioned, and in general evince great courage in attacking lions or any beasts of prey.

The colour of the Caffrees is a jet black, their teeth white as ivory, and their eyes large. The clothing of both sexes is nearly the same, consisting entirely of the hides of oxen, which are as pliant as cloth. The men wear tails of different animals tied round their thighs; pieces of brass in their hair, and large ivory rings on their arms: they are also adorned with the hair of lions, and feathers fastened in their heads, with many other fantastical ornaments.

They are extremely fond of dogs, which they exchange for cattle; and to such a height do they carry this passion, that if one particularly pleases them, they will give two bullocks in exchange for it. Their whole exercise through the day is hunting, fighting, or dancing. They are expert in throwing their lances; and in time of war use shields made of the hides of oxen.

The women are employed in the cultivation of their gardens and corn. They cultivate several vegetables, which are not indigenous to their country, ſuch as tobacco, water melons, a ſort of kidney beans, and hemp. The women alſo make baſkets, and the mats which they ſleep on. The men have great pride in their cattle; they cut their horns in ſuch a way as to be able to turn them into any ſhape they pleaſe; and they teach them to anſwer a whiſtle. When they wiſh their cattle to return home, they go a little way from the houſe, and blow this ſmall inſtrument, which is made of ivory or bone, and ſo conſtructed as to be heard at a great diſtance, and in this manner bring all their cattle home without any difficulty.

The ſoil of this country is a blackiſh loamy ground, and ſo extremely fertile, that every vegetable ſubſtance, whether ſown or planted, grows here with great luxuriance. There are great variations in the climate; but I had no thermometer to obſerve the degrees of heat. It ſeldom rains except in the ſummer ſeaſon, when it is accompanied with thunder and lightning. The country, however, is extremely well ſupplied with water, not only from the high land towards the north, which furniſhes abundance throughout the year, but from many fountains of excellent water, which are found in the woods. From what I obſerved in this country, I am induced to believe, that it is greatly ſuperior to any other known part of Africa. The woods produce a variety of arboreous plants, and ſome of a great ſize; they are inhabited by elephants, buffaloes, &c. There were alſo varieties of beautiful birds and butterflies; but they were ſo ſhy, that I was able only to preſerve two birds of that country.

To judge of the Caffrees by thoſe I had ſeen, ſays Monſieur Vaillant, they are taller than the Hottentots of the colonies, or even than the Gonaquas, though they greatly reſemble the latter, but are more robuſt, and poſſeſs a greater degree of pride and courage. The features of the Caffrees are likewiſe more agreeable, none of their faces contracting towards the bottom, nor do the cheek bones of theſe people project in the uncouth manner of the Hottentots; neither have they large flat faces and thick lips like their neighbours, the negroes of Moſambique, but a well formed contour, an agreeable noſe, with eyes ſparkling and expreſſive; ſo that, ſetting aſide our prejudice with regard to colour, there are many women among them who might be thought handſome by the ſide of an European lady. They do not disfigure themſelves by dawbing their eye-brows, like the Hottentots, but are very much tattoed, particularly about the face.

The hair of the Caffrees, which is ſtrong and curling, is never greaſed; but they anoint the reſt of their bodies, with a view of making themſelves active and ſtrong. The men are more particular in decorations than the women, being very fond of beads and braſs rings. They are ſeldom ſeen without bracelets on their legs and arms, made of the tuſks of an elephant, which they ſaw to a convenient thickneſs, and then poliſh and round. As theſe rings cannot be opened, it is neceſſary to make them big enough to paſs the hand through, ſo that they fall or riſe according to the motion of the arm; ſometimes they place ſmall rings on the arms of their children, whoſe growth ſoon fills up the ſpace, and fixes the ornament; a circumſtance which is particularly pleaſing to them.

They likewiſe make necklaces of the bones of animals, which they poliſh and whiten in the moſt perfect manner. Some content themſelves with the leg-bone of a ſheep hanging on the breaſt, which is thought as pleaſing a decoration as a patch on the face of a pretty woman. In the warm ſeaſon the Caffrees only wear their ornaments; when the weather is cold, they make uſe of kroſes made of the ſkins of calves or oxen, which reach to the feet. One particularity which deſerves attention, and does not exiſt elſewhere, is, that the Caffree women care little for ornaments. Indeed, they are well made, and pretty, when compared to other ſavages; and never use the uncouth profusion of Hottentot coquetry, not even wearing copper bracelets. Their aprons, like those of the Gonaquais, are bordered with small rows of beads, which is the only vanity they exhibit.

The skin that the female Hottentot ties about the loins, the Caffree woman wears as high as her shoulders, tying it over the bosom, which it covers. They have, like the men, a kross, or cloak, of calf or ox skin, divested of the hair; but it is only in the cold or rainy season that either sex wear it. These skins are as soft and pliant as the finest stuffs. Let the weather or season prove ever so bad, neither men or women cover their heads. Sometimes, indeed, I have seen the head of a Caffree adorned with a feather stuck in the hair, but this sight is by no means common.

One part of the daily occupation of the women is making earthen ware, which they fashion as dexterously as their husbands; they likewise make a curious kind of baskets, of a texture so compact as to contain milk; and they also prepare the fields for seed, scratching the earth, rather than digging it, with wooden pick-axes.

The huts of the Caffrees are higher and more commodious than those of the Hottentots: it is absolutely a perfect hemisphere; they are composed of wooden work, very strong and compact, covered, both within and without, with a mixture of earth, clay, and cow dung. The opening, or door-way, is so low, that to enter the dwelling, you must crawl on your hands and knees, which makes it easier to defend themselves against animals, or the sudden attacks of an enemy. The hearth, or fire place, is in the centre, surrounded by a circular rim which rises two or three inches.

The lands of Caffraria, either from their situation, or the number of small rivers that refresh them, are more fertile than those of the Hottentots. The Caffrees practise agriculture, which proves they are not naturally wanderers.

I have remarked, continues Monsieur Vaillant, that notwithstanding the beautiful forests that adorn Caffraria, and delightful pastures which spring up and almost cover the animals which feed on them: notwithstanding those rivers and streams which cross each other in a thousand different directions, to render them rich and fertile; their oxen, their cows, and almost all their animals, are much smaller than those of the Hottentots—a difference which undoubtedly arises from the nature of the sap, and a certain flavour predominant in every kind of grass. I have made the observation both on domestic and wild animals, which never acquire the size of those bred in the dry barren countries I have passed through.

Industry is a leading trait in the character of the Caffrees. Some arts, taught indeed by necessity, a love of agriculture, with a few religious dogmas, distinguish them as a more civilised people than those towards the south.

Circumcision, which is generally practised among them, proves that they either owe their origin to an ancient people, or have simply imitated the inhabitants of some neighbouring country, of whom they have no longer any remembrance, neither do they use it (as they say) in any religious or mystical sense.

They entertain a very high opinion of the Supreme Being, and of his power; believe in a future state, where the good will be rewarded, and the wicked punished; but have no idea of the creation, thinking the world had no beginning, and will ever continue in its present state. They have no sacred ceremonies, and never pray. They instruct their own children, having no priests; but, instead of them, a kind of sorcerers or conjurors, whom they greatly distinguish and revere.

The Caffrees are governed by a chief or king, whose power is very limited, receiving no tax, having no troops at his command, but being the father of a free people; neither attended nor feared, but respected and beloved, and frequently poorer than many of his subjects. Being permitted to take as many wives as he pleases, who think it an honour to belong to him, it is necessary that he should have a larger portion of land to cultivate and a greater number of cattle to tend and feed; these being his only resources for the maintenance of his numerous family, he is frequently in danger of being ruined. His cabin is neither higher, nor better decorated than the rest; his whole family and seraglio live round him, composing a group of a dozen or fifteeen huts, the adjoining lands is generally of his own cultivation.

It is a custom among the Caffrees, for each to gather his own grain, which is their favourite nourishment, and which they grind or crush between two stones; for which reason, the families living separately, each surrounded by his own plantation of corn, occasions a small *borde* sometimes to occupy a league square of ground; a circumstance never seen among the Hottentots.

The distance of the different *bordes* makes it necessary that they should have chiefs, who are appointed by the king. When there is any thing to communicate, he sends for, and gives them orders, or rather information, which the chiefs bear to their several *bordes*.

The principal weapon of the Caffree is the lance or assaygay, which shows his disposition to be at once intrepid and noble, despising, as below his courage, the envenomed dart, so much in use among his neighbours: seeking his enemy face to face, and never throwing his lance but openly. In war he carries a shield of about three feet in height, made of the thickest part of the hide of a buffaloe; this defends him from the arrow or assaygay, but is not proof against a musquet ball. The Caffree also manages with great skill, a club of about two feet and a half long, made of a solid piece of wood, three or four inches thick, in the largest part, and gradually diminishing towards one of the ends. When, in a close engagement, they strike with this weapon, or frequently throw it to the distance of fifteen or twenty paces, in which case it seldom fails of the intended effect.

The sovereignty here is hereditary, the eldest son ever succeeding. In default of male heirs, it is not the king's brother that succeeds, but the eldest nephew; and in case the king should have neither children nor nephews, the chiefs of the different hordes elect a king. Upon these occasions a spirit of party sometimes prevails, which gives rise to factions and intrigues that generally end in bloodshed.

Polygamy is customary among the Caffrees; their marriages are even more simple than those of the Hottentots, the parents of the bridegroom being always content with his choice; the friends of the bride are rather more difficult, but seldom refuse their consent; after which they rejoice, drink, and dance for weeks together, according to the wealth of the families; but these feasts are never held but on the first espousals. They have no musical instruments but such as are used by the Hottentots. As for their dances, the step is not unlike the English.

At the death of the father, the sons and the mother divide the property he has left between them. The daughters, claiming nothing, remain at home with their mother or brother, unless it pleases some man to take them, and if this circumstance takes place, during the life of the parents, they receive cattle in proportion to the wealth of their father. The dead are seldom buried, but carried away from the Kraal, by their family, and deposited in a deep trench common to the whole horde on such occasions, where the wild beasts repair at leisure, which preserves the air from those noxious vapours which otherwise the putrefraction would occasion. The honours of burial are only due to the king or chief of a horde; they cover these bodies with piles of stones in the form of a dome.

I am unacquainted with the disposition of the Caffrees, respecting love and jealousy, but believe that they only feel the latter sensation in regard to their countrymen; voluntarily giving up their women for a small consideration, to the first white man that expresses an inclination for them.

HISTORY.] The history of the continent of Africa is little known, and probably affords no materials which deserve to render it more so. We know from the ancients, who sailed a considerable way round the coasts, that the inhabitants were in the same rude situation near 2000 years ago, in which they are at present, that is, they had little of humanity about them but the form. This may either be accounted for by supposing that nature has placed some inseparable barrier between the natives of this division of Africa and the inhabitants of Europe, or that the former, being so long accustomed to a savage manner of life, and degenerating from one age to another, at length became hardly capable of making any progress in civility or science. It is very certain, that all the attempts of Europeans, particularly of the Dutch, at the Cape of Good Hope, have been hitherto ineffectual for making the least impression on these savage mortals, or giving them the least inclination, or even idea, of the European manner of living.

The Portuguese are sovereigns of the greatest part of the coast, and have a number of black princes their tributaries. There are some independent princes who have extensive dominions, particularly the kings of Dahome and Widah, the most noted of any for the infamous slave trade. Upwards of 200 years have the Europeans nations traded with Africa in human flesh, and encouraged in the Negro countries, wars, rapine, desolation, and murder, that the West India islands might be supplied with that commodity. The annual exportation of poor creatures from Africa, hath exceeded 100,000, many of whom are driven a thousand miles to the sea-coast, their villages having been surrounded in the night, by an armed force, and the inhabitants dragged into perpetual captivity.

A sea officer lately visited all the chiefs of the negroes in our settlements, from Santa Apollonia to Athera, an extent of more than 250 miles, and found the police and punishment of all crimes regulated by the slave trade. Those who commit crimes or trespasses against their laws, are, at the decision of twelve elders, sold for slaves for the use of their government, and the support of their chiefs. Theft, adultery, and murder, are the highest crimes, and, whenever they are detected, subject the whole family to slavery. But any individual condemned to slavery for the crime of his relation, may redeem his own person, by furnishing two slaves in his room. Or when a man commits one of the above cardinal crimes, all the male part of his family are forfeited to slavery; if a woman, the female part is sold. "This traffic in crimes make the chiefs vigilant. Nor do our planters, who purchase them, use any pains to instruct them in religion, to make them amends for the oppression thus exercised on them. I am sorry to say, they are unnaturally averse to every thing that tends to it; yet the Portuguese, French, and Spaniards, in their settlements, succeed in their attempts to instruct them, as much to the advantage of commerce, as of religion. It is for the sake of Christianity, and the advantages accompanying it, that English slaves embrace every occasion of deserting to the settlements of these nations."

It is high time for the legislature to interfere and put an end to this most infamous of all trades, so disgraceful to the Christian name, and so repugnant

pugnant to the principles of our conſtitution. Let the negroes, already in our iſlands, be properly treated, made free, and encouragement given to their population; meaſures that would be attended with no leſs profit than honour.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

OF the African iſlands, ſome lie in the Eaſtern or Indian Ocean, and ſome in the Weſtern, or Atlantic. We ſhall begin with thoſe in the Indian Ocean, the chief which are Zocotra, Babelmandel, Madagaſcar, the Comora iſlands, Bourbon, and Mauritius. *See the Map.*

ZOCOTRA. This iſland is ſituated in eaſt long. 55; north lat. 12-30 leagues eaſt of Cape Guardafui, on the continent of Africa; it is 80 miles long, and 54 broad, and has two good harbours, where the European ſhips uſed formerly to put in when they loſt their paſſage to India. It is a populous plentiful country, yielding moſt of the fruits and plants that are uſually found within the tropics, together with frankincenſe, gum-tragacanth, and aloes. The inhabitants are Mahometans, of Arab extraction, and are under the government of a prince or ſheik who is probably tributary to the Porte.

BABELMANDEL. The iſland of Babelmandel gives name to the ſtrait at the entrance of the Red Sea, where it is ſituated in Eaſt long. 44-30. north lat 12; about four miles both from the Arabian and Abyſſinian ſhores. The Abyſſinians, or Ethiopians, and the Arabians, formerly contended with great fury for the poſſeſſion of this iſland, as it commands the entrance into the South Sea, and preſerves a communication with the ocean. This ſtrait was formerly the only paſſage through which the commodities of India, found their way to Europe; but ſince the diſcovery of the Cape of Good Hope, the trade by the Red Sea is of little importance. The iſland is of little value, being a barren ſandy ſpot of earth not five miles round.

COMORA. Theſe iſlands are five; Joanna, Mayotta, Mohilla, Angazei, and Comora, ſituated between 41 and 46 eaſt long. and between 10 and 14 ſouth lat. at an equal diſtance from Madagaſcar and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, and which exacts tribute from the others, is about 30 miles long and 15 broad, and affords plenty of proviſions, and ſuch fruits as are produced between the tropics. Eaſt India ſhips, bound to Bombay, uſually touch here for refreſhments. The inhabitants are negroes, of the Mahometan perſuaſion, and entertain our ſeamen with great humanity.

MADAGASCAR. This is the largeſt of the African iſlands, and is ſituated between 43 and 51 deg., eaſt long. and between 10 and 26 ſouth lat. 300 miles ſooth-eaſt of the continent of Africa; it being near 1000 miles in length from north to ſouth; and generally between 200 and 300 miles broad. The ſea rolls with great rapidity, and extremely rough, between this iſland and the continent of the Cape of Good Hope, forming a channel or paſſage, through which all European ſhips in their voyage to and from India, generally ſail, unleſs prevented by ſtorms.

Madagaſcar is a pleaſant, deſirable, and fertile country, abounding in ſugar, honey, vines, fruit-treess, vegetables, valuable gums, corn, cattle, fowls, precious ſtones, iron, ſome ſilver, copper, ſteel, and tin. It affords an agreeable variety of hills, valleys, woods, and champaign:

watered with numerous rivers, and well ſtored with fiſh. The air is generally temperate, and ſaid to be very healthy, though in a hot climate. The inhabitants are of different complexions and religions; ſome white, ſome negroes, ſome Mahometans, ſome Pagans. The whites and thoſe of a tawny complexion, who inhabit the coaſts, are deſcended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites; but here are no moſques, temples, nor any ſtated worſhip, except that they offer ſacrifices of beaſts on particular occaſions; as when ſick, when they plant yams, or rice, when they hold their aſſemblies, circumciſe their children, declare war, enter into new built houſes, or bury their dead. Many of them obſerve the Jewiſh ſabbath, and give ſome account of the ſacred hiſtory, the creation and fall of man, as alſo of Noah, Abraham, Moſes, and David; from whence it is conjectured they are deſcended from Jews who formerly ſettled here, though none knows how, or when. This iſland was diſcovered by the Portugueſe, and the French took poſſeſſion of it in 1641; but the people diſliking their government, they were driven out in 1652; ſince which the natives have had the ſole poſſeſſion of the iſland, under a number of petty princes, who make war upon one another for ſlaves and plunder.

MAURITIUS, or Maurice, was ſo called by the Dutch, who firſt touched here, in 1598, in honour of prince Maurice their ſtadtholder. It is ſituated in eaſt long. 56, ſouth lat. 20, about 400 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar. It is of an oval form, about 150 miles in circumference, with a fine harbour, capable of holding 50 large ſhips, ſecure againſt any wind that blows, and 100 fathoms deep at the entrance. The climate is extremely healthy and pleaſant. The mountains, of which there are many, and ſome ſo high that their tops are covered with ſnow, produce the beſt ebony in the world, beſides various other kinds of valuable wood, two of which, greatly reſemble ebony in quality; one red, the other yellow as wax. The iſland is watered with ſeveral pleaſant rivers well ſtocked with fiſh; and though the ſoil is none of the moſt fruitful, yields plenty of tobacco, rice, fruit, and feeds a great number of cattle, deer, goats, and ſheep. It was formerly ſubject to the Dutch, but is now in the poſſeſſion of the French.

BOURBON. The iſle of Bourbon is ſituated in eaſt long. 54, ſouth lat. 21, about 300 miles eaſt of Madagaſcar, and is about 90 miles round. There are many good roads for ſhipping round Bourbon, particularly on the north and ſouth ſides; but hardly a ſingle harbour where ſhips can ride ſecure againſt thoſe hurricanes which blow during the monſoons. Indeed, the coaſt is ſo ſurrounded with blind rocks, ſunk a few feet below the water, that coaſting along ſhore is at all times dangerous. On the ſouthern extremity is a volcano, which continually throws out flames, ſmoke, and ſulphur, with a hideous roaring noiſe, terrible in the night to mariners. The climate here, though extremely hot, is healthy, being refreſhed with cooling gales, that blow morning and evening from the ſea and land; ſometimes, however, terrible hurricanes ſhake the whole iſland almoſt to its foundation; but generally without any other bad conſequence than frightening the inhabitants. The iſland abounds in brooks and ſprings, and in fruits, graſs, and cattle, with excellent tobacco (which the French have planted there) aloes, white pepper, ebony, palm, and other kinds of wood and fruit-trees. Many of the trees yield odoriferous gums and reſins, particular benzoin, of an excellent ſort in great plenty. The rivers are well ſtocked with fiſh, the coaſt with land and ſea tortoiſes, and every part of the country with horned cattle, as well as hogs and goats. Ambergriſe, coral, and the moſt beautiful ſhells, are found upon the ſhore.

The

The woods are full of turtle-doves, paroquets, pigeons, and a great variety of other birds, beautiful to the eye, and pleasant to the palate. The French first settled here in the year 1672, after they were driven from the island of Madagascar. They have now some considerable towns in the island, with a governor: and here their East India ships touch and take in refreshments.

There are a great many more small islands about Madagascar and on the eastern coast of Africa, laid down in maps, but no where described.

Leaving therefore the eastern world and the Indies, we now turn round the Cape of Good Hope, which opens to our view the Atlantic, an immense ocean lying between the two grand divisions of the globe, having Europe, Asia, and Africa, or the old world, on the east: and America, or the new world, on the west; towards which divisions we now steer our course, touching in our way at the following islands upon the African coast, that have not yet been described, viz. St. Helena, Ascension, St. Matthews, St. Thomas, &c. Goree, Cape Verd, the Canary and Madeira islands. *See the Map.*

ST. HELENA. The first island on this side the Cape is St. Helena, situated in west long. 6-4, south lat. 16, being 1200 miles west of the continent of Africa, and 1800 east of South America. The island is a rock, about 21 miles in circumference, very high and very steep, and only accessible at the landing place, in a small valley at the east end of it, which is defended by batteries of guns planted level with the water; and as the waves are perpetually dashing on the shore, it is generally difficult landing even here. There is no other anchorage about the island but at Chapel Valley Bay; and as the wind always blows from the south-east, if a ship overshoots the island ever so little, she cannot recover it again. The English plantations here afford potatoes and yams, with figs, plantains, bananas, grapes, kidney beans, and Indian corn; of the last, however, most part is devoured by rats, which harbour in the rocks, and cannot be destroyed; so that the flower they use, is almost wholly imported from England; and in times of scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes instead of bread. Though the island appears on every side a hard barren rock, yet it is agreeably diversified with hills and plains, adorned with plantations of fruit-trees and garden stuff. They have great plenty of hogs, bullocks, poultry, ducks, geese, and turkies, with which they supply the sailors, taking in exchange, shirts, drawers, or any light cloths, pieces of calico, silks, muslin, arrack, sugar, &c.

St. Helena is said to have been first discovered by the Portuguese on the festival of the Empress Helena, mother of the Emperor Constantine the Great, whose name it still bears. It does not appear that the Portuguese ever planted a colony here: and the English East-India Company took possession of it in 1600, and held it without interruption till the year 1673, when the Dutch took it by surprize. However, the English, under the command of captain Munden, recovered it again within the space of a year, and at the same time took three Dutch East India ships that lay in the road. There are about 200 families in the island, most of them descended from English parents. The East India ships take in water and fresh provisions here in their way home; but the island is so small, and the wind so much against them, outward bound, that they then very seldom see it.

The company's affairs are here managed by a governor, deputy-governor, and store-keeper, who have standing salaries allowed by the company, besides a public table, well furnished, to which all commanders, masters of ships, and principal passengers are welcome.

ASCENSION. This island is situated in 7 deg 40 min. south lat. 600 miles north west of St. Helena: it received its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension-day; and is a mountainous barren island, about 20 miles round, and uninhabited; but it has a safe convenient harbour, where the East India ships generally touch to furnish themselves with turtle, or tortoises, which are very plentiful here, and vastly large, some of them weighing above 100 pounds each. The sailors going ashore in the night time, frequently turn two or three hundred of them on their backs before morning; and are sometimes so cruel, as to turn many more than they use, leaving them to die on the shore.

St. MATTHEW. This is a small island lying in 6-1 west long. and 1-30 south lat. 300 miles to the north-east of Ascension, and was also discovered by the Portuguese, who planted and kept possession of it for some time; but afterwards deserted it. This island now remains uninhabited, having little to invite other nations to settle there, except a small lake of fresh water.

The four following islands, viz. St. THOMAS, ANABOA, PRINCES ISLAND, and FERDANDOPO, are situated in the gulf of Guinea, between Congo and Benin; all of them were first discovered by the Portuguese, and are still in the possession of that nation, and furnish shipping with fresh water, and provisions as they pass by.

CAPE VERD ISLANDS. These islands are so called from a cape of that name on the African coast, near the river Gambia, over against which they lie, at the distance of 300 miles, between 23 and 26 deg west long. and 14 and 18 deg. north lat. They were discovered in the year 1460, by the Portuguese, and are about 20 in number; but some of them, being only barren uninhabited rocks, are not worth notice. St. Jago, Bravo, Fogo, Mayo, Bonavista, Sal, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, S. Vincent, Santa Cruz, and St. Antonio, are the most considerable, and are subject to the Portuguese. The air, generally speaking, is very hot, and in some of them very unwholesome. They are inhabited by Europeans, or the descendants of Europeans, and negroes.

St. Jago, where the Portuguese viceroy resides, is the most fruitful, best inhabited, and largest of them all, being 150 miles in circumference; yet it is mountainous, and has much barren land in it. Its produce is sugar, cotton, some wine, Indian corn, cocoa-nuts, oranges, and other tropical fruits, plenty of roots, and garden stuff; but the plant of most consequence to them is the madder, which grows in abundance among the cliffs; and here is also plenty of hogs and poultry, and some of the prettiest green monkies, with black faces, that are to be met with any where. Baya, or Praya (famous for an action between an English and French squadron) is situated on the east side, has a good port, and is seldom without ships; those outward-bound to Guinea or the East Indies, from England, Holland, and France, often touching here for water and refreshments.

In the island of MAYO, or MAY, immense quantities of salt is made by the heat of the sun from the sea water, which at spring tides is received into a sort of pan formed by a sand bank, which runs along the coast for two or three miles. Here the English drive a considerable trade for salt, and have commonly a man of war to guard the vessels that come to load with it, which in some years amount to a hundred or more. The salt costs nothing, except for raking it together, wheeling it out of the pond, and carrying it on asses to the boats, which is done at a very cheap rate.

Several of our ſhips come hither for a freight of aſſes, which they carry to Barbadoes and other Britiſh plantations. The inhabitants of this iſland, even the governor and prieſts, are all negroes, and ſpeak the Portugueſe language. The negro governor expects a ſmall preſent from every commander that loads ſalt, and is pleaſed to be invited aboard their ſhips. The ſea water is ſo clear on this coaſt, that an Engliſh ſailor who dropped his watch, perceived it at the bottom, though many fathoms deep, and had it brought up by one of the natives who are in general expert at diving.

The iſland of FOGO is remarkable for being a volcano, continually ſending up ſulphureous exhalations; and ſometimes the flame breaks forth like Ætna, in a terrible manner, throwing out pumice ſtones, that annoy all the adjacent parts.

GOREE is ſituated within cannon-ſhot of Cape Verde, N. lat. 14-43. W. long. 17-20, and was ſo called by the Dutch from an iſland and town of the ſame name in Holland. It is a ſmall ſpot not exceeding two miles in circumference, but its importance ariſes from its ſituation for trade ſo near Cape Verde, and has been therefore a bone of contention between European nations. It was firſt poſſeſſed by the Dutch, from whom, in 1663, it was taken by the Engliſh, but in 1665 it was retaken by the Dutch, and in 1667 ſubdued by the French, in whoſe poſſeſſion it remained till the year 1759, when the Britiſh arms, every where triumphant, again reduced it; but it was reſtored to the French at the treaty of peace in 1763. It was retaken by the Engliſh the laſt war, but given up again by the peace of 1783.

CANARIES. The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Iſlands, are ſeven in number, and ſituated between 12 and 19 deg. weſt long. and between 27 and 29 deg. north lat. about 150 miles ſouth-weſt of Morocco. Their particular names are Palma, Hiero, Geomera, Teneriffe, Grand Canaria, Fuerteventura, and Langarote. Theſe iſlands enjoy a pure temperate air, and abound in the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially grapes, which produce thoſe rich wines that obtain the name of the Canary, whereof the greateſt part is exported to England, which in time of peace is computed at 10,000 hogſheads annually. The Canaries abound with thoſe little beautiful birds that bear their name, and are now ſo common and ſo much admired in Europe; but their wild notes in their native land far excel thoſe in a cage or foreign clime.

Grand Canary, which communicates its name to the whole, is about 150 miles in circumference, and ſo extremely fertile as to produce two harveſts in a year. Teneriffe, the largeſt of theſe iſlands next to that of the Grand Canary, is about 120 miles round: a fertile country abounding in corn, wine, and oil, though it is pretty much encumbered with mountains, particularly the Peak. Captain Glaſs obſerves, that in coming in with this iſland, in clear weather, the Peak may be eaſily diſcerned at 120 miles diſtance, and in ſailing from it at 150. The peak is an aſcent in the form of a ſugar-loaf, about 15 miles in circumference, and, according to the account of Sprat, biſhop of Rocheſter, publiſhed in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, nearly three miles perpendicular—lately aſcertained to be only 13,265 feet. This mountain is a volcano, and ſometimes throws out ſuch quantities of ſulphur and melted ore, as to convert the richeſt lands into barren deſerts. Theſe iſlands were firſt diſcovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans deſtroying that ſtate, put a ſtop to the navigation on the weſt coaſt of Africa, and the Canaries lay concealed from the reſt of the world, until they were again diſcovered by the Spaniards in the year 1405, to whom they ſtill belong. It is remarkable,

able, that though the natives resembled the Africans in their ſtature and complexion, when the Spaniards firſt came among them, their language was different from that ſpoken on the continent; they retained none of their cuſtoms, were maſters of no ſcience, and did not know there was any country in the world beſides their own.

MADEIRAS. The three iſlands called the Madeiras, are ſituated, according to the author of Anſon's voyage, in a fine climate, in 32-27, north lat. and from 18-30 to 19-30 weſt long. about 100 miles north of the Canaries, and as many weſt of Sallee, in Morocco. The largeſt, from which the reſt derive the general name of Madeiras, or rather Mattera, on account of its being formerly almoſt covered with wood, is about 75 miles long, 60 broad, and 180 in circumference. It is compoſed of one continued hill, of a conſiderable height, extending from eaſt to weſt: the declivity of which, on the ſouth ſide, is cultivated, and interſperſed with vineyards; and in the midſt of this ſlope the merchants have fixed their country ſeats, which form a very agreeable proſpect. There is but one conſiderable town in the whole iſland, which is named Funchal, ſeated on the ſouth part of the iſland, at the bottom of a large bay; towards the ſea, it is defended by a high wall, with a battery of cannon, and is the only place where it is poſſible for a boat to land; and even here the beach is covered with large ſtones, and a violent ſurf continually beats upon it.

Though this iſland ſeems to have been known to the ancients, yet it lay concealed for many generations, and was at length diſcovered by the Portugueſe in 1519; but others aſſert that it was firſt diſcovered by an Engliſhman, in the year 1344. Be that as it may, the Portugueſe took poſſeſſion of it, and are ſtill almoſt the only people who inhabit it. The Portugueſe, at their firſt landing, finding it little better than a thick foreſt, rendered the ground capable of cultivation, by ſetting fire to this wood; and it is now very fertile, producing, in great abundance, the richeſt wine, ſugar, the moſt delicious fruits, eſpecially oranges, lemons, and pomegranates; together with corn, honey, and wax; it abounds alſo with boars and other wild beaſts, and with all ſorts of fowls, beſides numerous groves of cedar trees, and thoſe that yield dragon's blood, maſtic, and other gums. The inhabitants of this iſle make the beſt ſweet-meats in the world, and ſucceed wonderfully in preſerving citrons and oranges, and in making marmalade and perfumed paſtes, which exceed thoſe of Genoa. The ſugar they make is extremely beautiful, and ſmells naturally of violets. This indeed is ſaid to be the firſt place in the weſt, where that manufacture was ſet on foot, and from thence was carried to the Braſils in America. The Portugueſe not finding it ſo profitable as at firſt, have pulled up the greateſt part of their ſugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their ſtead, which produce ſeveral ſorts of excellent wine, particularly that which bears the name of the iſland, Malmſey, and Tent; of all which the inhabitants make and ſell prodigious quantities. Not leſs than 20,000 hogſheads of Madeira, it is ſaid, are yearly exported, the greateſt part to the Weſt Indies, eſpecially to Barbadoes; the Madeira wine not only enduring a hot climate better than any other, but even being improved when expoſed to the ſun in barrels after the bung is taken out. It is ſaid no venomous animal can live here. Of the two other iſlands, one is called Porto Santo, which lies at a ſmall diſtance from Madeira, is about eight miles in compaſs, and extremely fertile. It has very good harbours, where ſhips may ride with ſafety againſt all winds, except the ſouth-weſt; and is frequented by Indiamen outward and homeward bound. The other iſland is an inconſiderable barren rock.

AZORES. Leaving the Madeiras, with which we cloſe the account of Africa, we continue our courſe weſtward, through this immenſe ocean, which brings us to the Azores, or, as they are called, the Western Islands, that are situated between 25 and 32 deg. west long. and between 37 and 40 north lat. 900 miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the mid-way between Europe and America. They are nine in number, and are named Santa Maria, St. Miguel or St. Michael, Tercera, St. George, Graciosa, Fayal, Pico, Flores, and Corvo. They were discovered in the middle of the fifteenth century, by Joshua Vander Berg, a merchant of Bruges, in Flanders, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was, by stress of weather, driven to these islands, which he found destitute of inhabitants, and called them the Flemish islands. On his arrival at Lisbon, he boasted of this discovery, on which the Portuguese set sail immediately, and took possession of them, and to whom they still belong, and were called in general, the Azores, from the great number of hawks and falcons found among them. All these islands enjoy a very clear and serene sky, with a salubrious air, but are exposed to violent earthquakes, from which they have frequently suffered; and also by the inundations of surrounding waves. They are, however, extremely fertile in corn, wine, and a variety of fruits, also cattle, fowl, and fish. It is said, that no poisonous or noxious animal breeds on the Azores, and that if carried thither, they will expire in a few hours.

St. Michael, which is the largest, being near 100 miles in circumference, and containing 50,000 inhabitants, was twice invaded and plundered by the English, in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is the most important of these islands, on account of its harbour, which is spacious, and has good anchorage: but is exposed to the south-east winds. Its capital town, Angra, contains a cathedral and five churches, and is the residence of the governor of these islands, as well as of the bishop.

AMERICA.

ITS DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST.

WE are now to treat of a country of vast extent and fertility, and which, though little cultivated by the hand of art, owes in many respects more to that of nature, than any other division of the globe. The particular circumstances of this country, require that we should in some measure vary our plan, and before describing its present state, afford such information with regard to its discovery, as is most necessary for satisfying our readers.

Towards the close of the 15th century, Venice, and Genoa, were the only powers in Europe who owed their import to commerce. An interference of interests inspired a mutual rivalship; but in traffic Venice was much superior. She engrossed the whole commerce of India, then, and indeed, always, the most valuable in the world, but hitherto entirely carried on through the inland parts of Asia, or by the way of Egypt and the Red Sea. In this state of affairs, Columbus, a native of Genoa, whose knowledge of the true figure of the earth, however attained, was much superior to the general notions of the age in which he lived, conceived a project of sailing to the Indies, by a bold and unknown route, and of opening to his country a new source of opulence and power. But this proposal of sailing westward to the Indies was rejected by the Genoese as chimerical, and the principles on which it was founded, were condemned as absurd. Stung with disappointment and indignation, Columbus retired from his country, laid his scheme before the court of France, where his reception was still more mortifying, and where, according to the practice of that people, he was laughed at and ridiculed. Henry VII, of England, was his next resort; but the cautious politics of that prince were the most opposite imaginable to a great but uncertain design. In Portugal, where the spirit of adventure and discovery about this time began to operate, he had reason to expect better success. But the Portuguese contented themselves with creeping along the coast of Africa, and discovering one cape after another; they had no notion of venturing boldly into the open sea, and of risking the whole at once. Such repeated disappointments would have broken the spirit of any man but Columbus. The expedition required expence, and he had nothing to defray it. His mind, however, still remained firm; he became the more enamoured of his design, the more difficulty he found in accomplishing it, and he was inspired with that noble enthusiasm which always animates an adventurous and original genius. Spain was now his only resource, and there, after eight years' attendance, he succeeded, and chiefly through the interest of Queen Isabella. Columbus now set sail, anno 1492, with a fleet of three ships, upon the most adventurous attempt ever undertaken by man, and in the fate of which the inhabitants of two worlds were interested. In this voyage he had a thousand difficulties to contend with; the most striking was the variation of the compass, then first observed, and which seemed to threaten that the laws of nature were altered to an unknown ocean, and that the only guide he had left was ready to forsake him. His sailors, always discontented, now broke out into open mutiny, threatening to throw him overboard, and insisted on their return. But the firmness of the commander, and much more the discovery of land, after a voyage of 33 days, put an end to the commotion. Columbus first landed on one of the Bahama islands; but here, to his surprise and sorrow, discovered, from the poverty of the inhabitants, that these could not be the Indies he was in quest of. In steering southward, however, he found the island called Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, inhabited by a humane and hospitable people, and, what was of still greater consequence, as it insured his favourable reception at home, promising from some samples he received, considerable quantities of gold. This island therefore he proposed to make the centre of his discoveries; and having left upon it a few of his companions, as the ground-work of a colony, returned to Spain to procure the necessary reinforcements.

The court was then at Barcelona: Columbus travelled thither from Seville, amidst the acclamations of the people, attended by some of the inhabitants, the gold, the arms, the utensils, and ornaments of the country he had discovered. This entry into Barcelona, was a species of triumph more glorious than that of conquerors, more uncommon, and more innocent. In this voyage he had acquired a general knowledge of all the islands in the great sea, which divides North and South America; but he had no idea that there was an ocean between him and China. The countries which he had discovered were considered as a part of India. Even after the error which gave rise to this opinion was detected, and the true position of the New World was ascertained, the name has remained, and the appellation of *West Indies* is given by all the people of Europe to the country, and that of *Indians* to its inhabitants. Thus were the West Indies discovered by seeking a passage to the East; and even after the discovery, still conceived to be a part of the Eastern hemisphere. The present success of Columbus, his former disappointments, and the glory attending so unexpected a discovery, rendered the court of Spain as eager to forward his designs now, as it had been dilatory before. A fleet of seventeen sail was immediately prepared; all the necessaries for conquest or discovery were embarked; 1500 men, among whom were several of high rank and fortune, prepared to accompany Columbus, now appointed governor, with the most ample authority. It is impossible to determine whether the genius of this great man, in first conceiving the idea of these discoveries, or his sagacity in the execution of the plan he had conceived, most deserve our admiration. Instead of hurrying from sea to sea, and from one island to another, which, considering the ordinary motives to action among mankind, was naturally to be expected, Columbus, with such a field before him, unable to turn on either hand without finding new objects of his curiosity and his pride, determined rather to turn to the advantage of the court of Spain the discoveries he had already made, than to acquire for himself the unavailing applause of visiting a number of unknown countries, from which he reaped no other benefit but the pleasure of seeing them. With this view he made for Hispaniola, where he established a colony, and erected forts in the most advantageous grounds for securing the dependence of the natives. Having spent a considerable time in this employment, and laboured for establishing this colony with as much zeal and assiduity as if his views had extended no farther, he next proceeded to ascertain the importance of his other discoveries, and to examine what advantages were most likely to be derived from them. He had already touched at Cuba, which, from some specimens, seemed a rich discovery; but whether it was an island, or a part of some great continent, he was altogther uncertain. To ascertain this point was the present object of his attention. In coasting along the southern shore of Cuba, Columbus was entangled in a multitude of islands, of which he reckoned 160 in one day. These islands, which were well inhabited, and abounding in all the necessaries of life, gave him an opportunity of reflecting on this fertility of nature where the world expected nothing but the barren ocean; he called them *Jardin de la Reina*, or the Queen's Garden, in gratitude to his royal benefactress, who was always uppermost in his memory. In the same voyage, Jamaica was discovered. But to so many difficulties was Columbus exposed, on an unknown sea, among rocks, shelves, and sands, that he returned to Hispaniola, without learning any thing more certain with regard to Cuba, the main object of this enterprise.

By the first success of this great man, the public diffidence was turned into admiration; but by a continuance of the same success, their admiration degenerated into envy. His enemies in Spain set every spring in motion against him; and there is no difficulty in finding specious grounds of accusation against such as are employed in the execution of an extensive and complicated plan. An officer was dispatched from Spain, fitted by his character to act the part of a spy and informer, and whose presence plainly demonstrated to Columbus the necessity of returning to Europe, for obviating the objections or calumny of his enemies.

It was not without great difficulty that he was enabled to set out on a third expedition, still more famous than any he had hitherto undertaken. He designed to stand to the southward of the Canaries until he came under the equinoctial line, and then to proceed directly westward, that he might discover what opening that might afford to India, or what new islands, or what continent might reward his labour. In this navigation, after being long buried in a thick fog, and suffering numberless inconveniences from the excessive heats and rains between the tropics, they were at length favoured with a smart gale, and went before it seventeen days to the westward. At the end of this time, a seaman saw land, which was an island on the coast of Guiana, now called Trinidad. Having passed this island, and two others which lie in the mouth of the great river Oronoco, the admiral was surprised with an appearance he had never seen before: this was the frightful tumult of the waves, occasioned by a conflict between the tide of the sea and the rapid current of the immense river Oronoco. But sailing forward, he plainly discovered that they were in fresh water; and judging rightly that it was improbable any island should supply so vast a river, he began to suspect he had discovered the continent; but when he left the river, and found that the land continued on the westward for a great way, he was convinced of it. Satisfied with this discovery, he yielded to the uneasiness and distresses of his crew, and bore away for Hispaniola. In the course of this discovery, Columbus landed at several places, where in a friendly manner he traded with the inhabitants, and found gold and pearl in tolerable plenty.

About this time the spirit of discovery spread itself widely, and many adventurers all over Europe wished to acquire the reputation of Columbus without possessing his abilities. The Portuguese discovered Brazil, which makes at present the most valuable part of their possessions: Cabot, a native of Bristol, discovered the north-east coasts, which now compose the British empire in North America: and Americus Vespusius, a merchant of Florence, sailed to the southern continent of America, and, being a man of addrefs, had the honour of giving his name to half the globe. But no one is now impofed on by the name; all the world knows that Columbus was the firft difcoverer. The being deprived of the honour of giving name to the new world, was one of the fmalleft mortifications to which this great man was compelled to fubmit. For fuch were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that, after difcovering the continent, and making fettlements in the iflands of America, he was treated like a traitor, and carried over to Europe in irons. He enjoyed however, the glory of rendering the one half of the world known to the other; a glory fo much the more precious, as it was untainted by cruelty or plunder, which disfigured all the exploits of thofe who came after him, and accomplifhed the execution of his plan. He fully vindicated himfelf at court, was reftored to favour, and undertook another voyage in which he fuffered great fatigues. He returned to Spain, and died at Valladollid, in 1506, in the 59th year of his age. The fucceeding governors of Cuba and Hifpaniola endeavoured to purchafe the fame advantages by the blood of the natives, which Columbus had obtained by his good fenfe and humanity. Thefe iflands contained mines of gold.—The Indians only knew where they were fituated; and the extreme avarice of the Spaniards, too furious to work by the gentle means of perfuafion, hurried them to acts of the moft fhocking violence and cruelty againft thofe unhappy men, who, they believed, concealed from them part of their treafure. The flaughter once begun, they fet no bounds to their fury; in a few years they depopulated Hifpaniola, which contained three millions of inhabitants; and Cuba that had about 600,000. Bartholomew de las Cafas, a witnefs of thofe barbarous depopulations, fays, that the Spaniards went out with their dogs to hunt after men. The unhappy favages, almoft naked and unarmed were purfued like deer into the thick of the forefts, devoured by dogs, killed with gun fhot, or furprifed and burnt in their habitations.

The Spaniards had hitherto only vifited the continent: from what they faw with their eyes, or learned by report, they conjectured that this part of the new world would afford a ftill more valuable conqueft. Fernando Cortez is difpatched from Cuba with 600 men, 18 horfes, and a fmall number of field pieces. With this inconfiderable force, he propofes to fubdue the moft powerful ftate on the continent of America: this was the empire of Mexico: rich, powerful, and inhabited by millions of Indians, paffionately fond of war, and then headed by Montezuma, whofe fame in arms ftruck terror in the neighbouring nations. Never hiftory, to be true, was more improbable and romantic than that of this war. The empire of Mexico had fubfifted for ages: its inhabitants, it is faid, were not rude and barbarous; every thing announced a polifhed and intelligent people. They knew, like the Egyptians of old, whofe wifdom is ftill admired in this particular, that the year confifted nearly of 365 days. Their fuperiority in military affairs was the object of admiration and terror over all the continent; and their government, founded on the fure bafis of laws combined with religion, feemed to bid defiance to time itfelf. Mexico, the capital of the empire, fituated in the middle of a fpacious lake, was the nobleft monument of American induftry. It communicated to the continent by immenfe caufeways, which were carried through the lake. The city was admired for its buildings, all of ftone, its fquares, and market places, the fhops which glittered with gold and filver, and the fumptuous palaces of Montezuma, fome erected on columns of jafper, and containing whatever was moft rare, curious, or ufeful. But all the grandeur of this empire could not defend it against the Spaniards. Cortez, in his march, met with a feeble opposition from the nations along the coast of Mexico, who were terrified at their first appearance: the warlike animals, on which the Spanish officers were mounted, the artificial thunder which issued from their hands, the wooden castles which had wafted them over the ocean, struck a panic into the natives, from which they did not recover until it was too late. Wherever the Spaniards marched, they spared no age or sex, nothing sacred or profane. At last, the inhabitants of Tlascala, and some other states upon the coast, despairing of being able to oppose them, entered into their alliance, and joined armies with those terrible, and, as they believed, invincible conquerors. Cortez, thus reinforced, marched onward to Mexico; and, in his progress, discovers a volcano of sulphur and salt-petre, whence he could supply himself with powder. Montezuma heard of his progress without daring to oppose it. This sovereign is reported, by the boasting Spaniards, to have commanded thirty vassals, of whom each could appear at the head of 100,000 combatants, armed with bows and arrows, and yet he dares not resist a handful of Spaniards, aided by a few Americans, whose allegiance would be shaken by the first reverse of fortune. Such was the difference between the inhabitants of the two worlds, and the fame of the Spanish victories, which always marched before them.

By sending a rich present of gold, which only whetted the Spanish avarice, Montezuma hastened the approach of the enemy. No opposition is made to their entry into his capital. A palace is set apart for Cortez and his companions, who are already treated as the masters of the new world. He had good reason, however, to distrust the affected politeness of this emperor, under which he suspected some plot for his destruction to be concealed; but he had no pretence for violence; Montezuma loaded him with kindness, and with gold in greater quantities than he demanded, and his palace was surrounded with artillery, the most frightful of all engines to the Americans. At last, a circumstance fell out which afforded Cortez a pretext for beginning hostilities. In order to secure a communication by sea to receive the necessary reinforcements, he erected a fort, and left a small garrison behind him at Vera Cruz, which has since become an emporium of commerce between Europe and America. He understood that the Americans in the neighbourhood had attacked this garrison in his absence, and that a Spaniard was killed in the action; that Montezuma himself was privy to this violence, and had issued orders that the head of the slain Spaniard should be carried through his provinces, to destroy a belief, which then prevailed among them, that the Europeans were immortal. Upon receiving this intelligence, Cortez went in person to the emperor, attended by a few of his most experienced officers. Montezuma pleaded innocence, in which Cortez seemed extremely ready to believe him, though, at the same time, he alledged that the Spaniards in general, would never be persuaded of it, unless he returned along with them to their residence, which would remove all jealousy between the two nations. The success of this interview showed the superiority of the European address. A powerful monarch, in middle of his own palace, and surrounded by his guards, gave himself up a prisoner, to be disposed of according to the inclination of a few gentlemen who came to demand him. Cortez had now got into his hands an engine by which every thing might be accomplished. The Americans had the highest respect, or rather a superstitious veneration for their emperor. Cortez, therefore, by keeping him in his power, allowing him to enjoy every mark of royalty, but his freedom, and, at the same time, from a thorough knowledge of his character, being able to flatter all his tastes and passions, maintained the easy sovereignty of Mexico, by governing its prince. Did the Mexicans, grown familiar with the Spaniards, begin to abate of their respect. Montezuma was the first to teach them more politeness. Was there a tumult excited through the cruelty or avarice of the Spaniards; Montezuma ascended the battlements of his prison, and harangued his Mexicans into order and submission. This farce continued a long while, but on one of these occasions, when Montezuma was shamefully disgracing his character, by justifying the enemies of his country, a stone, from an unknown hand, struck him on the temple, which, in a few days, occasioned his death. The Mexicans, now delivered from this emperor, who co-operated so strongly with the Spaniards, elect a new prince, the famous Guatimozin, who, from the beginning, discovered an implacable animosity against the Spanish name. Under his conduct, the unhappy Mexicans rushed against those very men, whom a little before, they had offered to worship. The Spaniards, however, by the dexterous management of Cortez, were too firmly established to be expelled from Mexico. The immense tribute which the grandees of this country had agreed to pay to the crown of Spain, amounted to 600,000 marks of pure gold, besides an amazing quantity of precious stones, a fifth part of which, distributed among his soldiers, stimulated their avarice and their courage, and made them willing to perish rather than part with so precious a booty. The Mexicans, however, made no small efforts for independence; but all their valour, and despair itself, gave way before what they called the Spanish thunder. Guatimozin and the empress were taken prisoners. This was the prince who, when he lay stretched on burning coals, by order of one of the receivers of the king of Spain's exchequer, who inflicted the torture to make him discover into what part of the lake he had thrown his riches, said to his high priest, condemned to the same punishment, and who loudly expressed his sense of the pains that he endured, "Do you take me to "lie on a bed of roses?" The high priest remained silent, and died in an act of obedience to his sovereign. Cortez, by getting a second emperor into his hands, made a complete conquest of Mexico; with which the Castille D'Or, Darien, and other provinces, fell into the hands of the Spaniards.

While Cortez and his soldiers were employed in reducing Mexico, they got intelligence of another great empire, situated towards the equinoctial line, and the tropic of Capricorn, which was said to abound in gold and silver, and precious stones, and to be governed by a prince more magnificent than Montezuma. This was the empire of Peru, which extended in length near 30 degrees, and was the only other country in America, which deserved the name of a civilized kingdom. Whether it happened, that the Spanish government had not received certain intelligence concerning Peru, or that, being engaged in a multiplicity of other concerns, they did not choose to adventure on new enterprizes; certain it is, that this extensive country, more important than Mexico itself, was reduced by the endeavours, and at the expence of three private persons. The names of these were, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Lucques, a priest, but a man of considerable fortune. The two former were natives of Panama, men of doubtful birth, and of low education. Pizarro, the soul of the enterprise, could neither read nor write. They sailed over into Spain, and, without difficulty, obtained a grant of what they should conquer. Pizarro then set out for the conquest of Peru, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and twelve small pieces of cannon, drawn by slaves from the conquered countries. If we reflect that the Peruvians naturally entertained the same prejudices with the Mexicans, in favour of the Spanish nation, and were, beside, of a character still more soft and unwarlike, it need not surprise us, after what has been said of the conquest of Mexico, that, with this inconsiderable force, Pizarro should make a deep impression on the Peruvian empire. There were particular circumstances likewise which conspired to assist him, and which, as they discover somewhat of the history, religion, and state of the human mind, in this immense continent, it may not be improper to relate.

Mango Capac was the founder of the Peruvian empire. He was one of those uncommon men, who, calm and dispassionate themselves, can observe the passions of their fellow-creatures, and turn them to their own profit or glory. He observed that the people of Peru were naturally superstitious, and had a particular veneration for the sun. He pretended therefore to be descended from that luminary, whose worship he was sent to establish, and whose authority he was entitled to bear. By this story, romantic as it appears, he easily deceived a credulous people, and brought a large extent of territory under his jurisdiction; a larger still he subdued by his arms; but both the force and the deceit he employed for the most laudable purposes. He united and civilized the dispersed barbarous people; he bent them to laws and arms; he softened them by the institution of a benevolent religion; in short, there was no part of America, where agriculture and the arts were so assiduously cultivated, and where the people were of so mild and ingenuous manners. A race of princes succeeded Mango, distinguished by the title of Yncas, and revered by the people as descendants of their great god, the Sun. The twelfth of these was now on the throne, and named Atabalipa. His father, Guaina Capac, had conquered the province of Quito, which now maks a part of Spanish Peru. To secure himself in the possession, he had married the daughter of the natural prince of that country, and of this marriage was sprung Atabalipa. His elder brother, named Huescar, of a different mother, had claimed the succession to the whole of his father's dominions, not excepting Quito, which devolved on the younger by a double connection. A civil war had been kindled on this account, which, after various turns of fortune, and greatly weakening the kingdom, ended in favour of Atabalipa, who detained Huescar, as a prisoner, in the tower of Cusco, the capital of the Peruvian empire. In this feeble and disjointed state was the kingdom of Peru, when Pizarro advanced to it. The ominous predictions of religion, too, as in most other cases, joined their force to human calamities. Prophecies were recorded, dreams were recollected, which foretold the subjection of the empire, by unknown persons, whose description exactly corresponded to the appearance of the Spaniards. In these circumstances, Atabalipa, instead of opposing the Spaniards, set himself to procure their favour. Pizarro, however, whose temper partook of the meanness of his education, had no conception of dealing gently with those he called Barbarians, but who, however, though less acquainted with the cruel art of destroying their fellow-creatures, were more civilized than himself. While he was engaged in conference, therefore, with Atabalipa, his men, as they had been previously instructed, furiously attacked the guards of that prince, and having butchered 5000 of them, as they were pressing forward, without regard to their particular safety, to defend the sacred person of their monarch, seized Atabalipa himself, whom they carried off to the Spanish quarters. Pizarro, with the sovereign in his hands, might already be deemed the master of Peru; for the inhabitants of this country were as strongly atached to their emperor as were the Mexicans. Atabalipa

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was not long in their hands before he began to treat of his ransom. On this occasion the ancient ornaments, amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, the hallowed treasures of the most magnificent temples, were brought out to save him, who was the support of the kingdom, and of the religion. While Pizarro was engaged in this negociation, by which he proposed, without releasing the emperor, to get into his possession an immense quantity of his beloved gold, the arrival of Almagro caused some embarrassment in his affairs. The friendship, or rather the external show of friendship, between these men, was solely founded on the principle of avarice, and a bold enterprising spirit, to which nothing appeared too dangerous that might gratify their ruling passion. When their interests, therefore, happened to interfere, it was not to be thought that any measures could be kept between them. Pizarro expected to enjoy the most considerable share of the treasure arising from the emperor's ransom, because he had the chief hand in acquiring it. Almagro insisted on being upon an equal footing; and at length, lest the common cause might suffer by any rupture between them, this disposition was agreed to: the ransom is paid in without delay, a sum exceeding their conception, but not capable to gratify their avarice. It amounted to 1,500,000l. sterling, and, considering the value of money at that time, was prodigious: on the dividend, after deducting a fifth for the king of Spain, and the shares of the chief commanders and other officers, each private soldier had above 2000l. English money. With such fortunes it was not to be expected that a mercenary army would incline to be subjected to the rigours of military discipline. They insisted on being disbanded, that they might enjoy the fruits of their labour in quiet. Pizarro complied with this demand, sensible that avarice would still detain a number in his army, and that those who returned with such magnificent fortunes, would induce new adventurers to pursue the same plan for acquiring gold. These wise reflections were abundantly verified; it was impossible to send out better recruiting officers than those who had themselves so much profited by the field; new soldiers constantly arrived, and the American armies never wanted reinforcements.

This immense ransom was only a farther reason for detaining Atabalipa in confinement, until they discovered whether he had another treasure to gratify their avarice. But whether they believed he had no more to give, and were unwilling to employ their troops in guarding a prince, from whom they expected no farther advantage, or that Pizarro had conceived an aversion against the Peruvian emperor, on account of some instances of craft and duplicity which he observed in his character, and which he conceived might prove dangerous to his affairs, it is certain, that, by his command Atabalipa was put to death. To justify this cruel proceeding, a sham charge was exhibited against the unhappy prince, in which he was accused of idolatry, of having many concubines, and other circumstances of equal impertinence. The only just ground of accusation against him was, that his brother, Huesca, had been put to death by his command; and even this was considerably palliated, because Huescar had been plotting his destruction, that he might establish himself on the throne. Upon the death of the Ynca, a number of candidates appeared for the throne. The principal nobility set up the full brother of Huescar; Pizarro set up a son of Atabalipa; and two generals of the Peruvians endeavoured to establish themselves by the assistance of the army. These distractions, which in another empire would have been extremely hurtful, and even here at another time, were at present rather advantageous to the Peruvian affairs. The candidates fought against one another; their battles accustomed these harmless people to blood; and such is the preference of a spirit of any kind raised in a nation to a total lethargy, that in the course of those quarrels among themselves, the inhabitants of Peru assumed some courage against the Spaniards, whom they regarded as the ultimate cause of all their calamities. The losses which the Spaniards met with in these quarrels, though inconsiderable in themselves, were rendered dangerous, by lessening the opinion of their invincibility, which they were careful to preserve among the inhabitants of the new world. This consideration engaged Pizarro to conclude a truce; and this interval he employed in laying the foundations of the famous city of Lima, and in settling the Spaniards in the country. But as soon as a favourable opportunity offered, he renewed the war against the Indians, and after many difficulties, made himself master of Cusco, the capital of the empire. While he was engaged in these conquests, new grants and supplies arrived from Spain. Pizarro obtained 200 leagues along the sea-coast, to the southward of what had been before granted, and Almagro 200 leagues to the southward of Pizarro's government. This division occasioned a warm dispute between them, each reckoning Cusco within his own district. But the dexterity of Pizarro brought about a reconciliation. He persuaded his rival that the country which really belonged to him, lay to the southward of Cusco, and that it was no way inferior in riches, and might be as easily conquered as Peru. He offered him his assistance in the expedition, the success of which he did not even call in question.

Almagro, that he might have the honour of subduing a kingdom for himself, listened to his advice; and joining as many of Pizarro's troops to his own as he judged necessary, penetrated, with great danger and difficulty, into Chili; losing many of his men as he passed over mountains of an immense height, and always covered with snow. He reduced, however, a very considerable part of this country. But the Peruvians were now become too much acquainted with war not to take advantage of the division of the Spanish troops. They made an effort for regaining their capital, in which, Pizarro being indisposed, and Almagro removed at a distance, they were well nigh successful. The latter, however, no sooner got notice of the siege of Cusco, than, relinquishing all views of distant conquests, he returned to secure the grand objects of their former labours. He raised the siege with infinite slaughter of the assailants; but having obtained possession of the city, he was unwilling to give it up to Pizarro, who now approached with an army, and knew of no other enemy but the Peruvians. This dispute occasioned a long and bloody struggle between them, in which the turns of fortune were various, and the resentment fierce on both sides, because the fate of the vanquished was certain death. This was the lot of Almagro, who, in an advanced age, fell a victim to the security of a rival, in whose dangers and triumphs he had long shared, and with whom, from the beginning of the enterprise, he had been intimately connected. During the course of this civil war, many Peruvians served in the Spanish armies, and learned from the practice of Christians, to butcher one another. That blinded nation, however, at length opened their eyes, and took a very remarkable resolution. They saw the ferocity of the Europeans, their unextinguishable resentment and avarice, and they conjectured that these passions would never permit the contests to subside. Let us retire, said they, from among them; let us fly to our mountains; they will speedily destroy one another, and then we may return in peace to our former habitations. This resolution was instantly put in practice; the Peruvians dispersed, and left the Spaniards in their capital. Had the force on each side been exactly equal, this singular policy of the natives of Peru might have been attended with ſucceſs. But the victory of Pizarro put an end to Almagro's life, and to the hopes of the Peruvians, who have never ſince ventured to make head againſt the Spaniards.

Pizarro, now ſole maſter of the field, and of the richeſt empire in the world, was ſtill urged on, by his ambition, to undertake new enterprizes. The ſouthern countries of America, into which he had ſometime before diſpatched Almagro, offered the richeſt conqueſt. Towards this quarter the mountains of Potoſi, compoſed of entire ſilver, had been diſcovered, the ſhell of which only remains at preſent. He therefore followed the track of Almagro into Chili, and reduced another part of that country. Orellana one of his commanders, paſſed the Andes, and ſailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazons: an immenſe navigation, which diſcovered a rich and delightful country, but as it is moſtly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever ſince, neglected it. Pizarro meeting with repeated ſucceſs, and having no ſuperior to control, no rival to keep him within bounds, now gave looſe reins to the natural ferocity of his temper, and behaved with the baſeſt tyranny and cruelty againſt all who had not concurred in his deſigns. This conduct raiſed a conſpiracy againſt him, to which he fell a ſacrifice in his own palace, and in the city of Lima, which he himſelf had founded. The partiſans of old Almagro, now declared his ſon, of the ſame name, their viceroy. But the greater part of the nation, though extremely well ſatisfied with the fate of Pizarro, did not concur with this declaration. They waited the orders of the emperor, Charles V, then king of Spain, who ſent over Vaca di Caſtro to be their governor. This man, by his intregrity and wiſdom, was admirably well fitted to heal the wounds of the colony, and to place every thing on the moſt advantageous footing, both for it and for the mother country. By his prudent management, the mines of la Plata and Potoſi, which were formerly a matter of private plunder, became an object of public utility to the court of Spain. The parties were ſilenced or cruſhed; young Almagro, who would hearken to no terms of accommodation, was put to death; and a tranquillity, ſince the arrival of the Spaniards unknown, was reſtored to Peru. It ſeems, however, that Caſtro had not been ſufficiently ſkilled in gaining the favour of the Spaniſh miniſtry, by proper bribes or promiſes, which a miniſtry would always expect from the governor of ſo rich a country. By their advice a council was ſent over to control Caſtro, and the colony was again unſettled. The party-ſpirits but juſt extinguiſhed, began to blaze anew; and Gonzalo, the brother of the famous Pizarro, ſet himſelf at the head of his brother's partiſans, with whom many new malcontents had united. It was now no longer a diſpute between governors about the bounds of their juriſdiction. Gonzalo Pizarro only paid a nominal ſubmiſſion to the king. He ſtrengthened daily, and even went ſo far as to behead a governor, who was ſent over to curb him. He gained the confidence of the admiral of the Spaniſh fleet in the South Seas, by whoſe means he propoſed to hinder the landing of any troops from Spain, and he had a view of uniting the inhabitants of Mexico in his revolt.

Such was the ſituation of affairs, when the court of Spain, ſenſible of their miſtake in not ſending into America, men whoſe character and virtue only, and not importunity and cabal, pleaded in their behalf, diſpatched, with unlimited powers, Peter de la Gaſca, a man differing only from Caſtro, by being of a more mild and inſinuating behaviour, but with the ſame love of juſtice, the ſame greatneſs of ſoul, and the ſame diſintereſted ſpirit. All thoſe who had not joined in Pizarro's revolt, flocked under

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his ſtandard; many of his friends, charmed with the behaviour of Gaſca forſook their old connections; the admiral was gained over by inſinuation to return to his duty; and Pizarro himſelf was offered a full indemnity, provided he ſhould return to the allegiance of the Spaniſh crown. But ſo intoxicating are the ideas of royalty, that Pizarro was inclined to run every hazard, rather than ſubmit to any officer of Spain. With thoſe of his partiſans, therefore, who ſtill continued to adhere to his intereſt, he determined to venture a battle, in which he was conquered, and taken priſoner. His execution followed ſoon after; and thus the brother of him who conquered Peru for the crown of Spain, fell a ſacrifice for the ſecurity of the Spaniſh dominion over that country.

The conqueſt of the great empires of Mexico and Peru, is the only part of the American hiſtory which deſerves to be treated under the preſent head. What relates to the reduction of the other parts of the continent or of the iſlands, if it contains either inſtruction or entertainment, ſhall be handled under theſe particular countries. We now proceed to treat of the manners, government, religion, and whatever compoſes the character of the natives of America; and as theſe are extremely ſimilar all over this part of the globe, we ſhall ſpeak of them in general, in order to ſave continual repetitions, noticing at the ſame time, when we enter upon the deſcription of the particular countries, whatever is peculiar or remarkable in the inhabitants of each.

Of the Original Inhabitants of AMERICA.

THE diſcovery of America has not only opened a new ſource of wealth to the buſy and commercial part of Europe, but an extenſive field of ſpeculation to the philoſopher who would trace the character of man under various degrees of refinement, and obſerve the movements of the human heart, or the operations of the human underſtanding, when untutored by ſcience or untainted by corruption. So ſtriking ſeemed the diſparity between the inhabitants of Europe and the natives of America, that ſome ſpeculative men have ventured to affirm, that it is impoſſible they ſhould be of the ſame ſpecies, or derived from one common ſource. This concluſion, however, is extremely ill founded. The characters of mankind may be infinitely varied according to the different degrees of improvement at which they are arrived, the manner in which they acquire the neceſſaries of life, the force of cuſtom and habit, and a multiplicity of other circumſtances too particular to be mentioned, and too various to be reduced under any general head. But the great outlines of humanity are to be diſcovered among them all, notwithſtanding the various ſhades which characteriſe nations, and diſtinguiſh them from each other.

When the thirſt of gold carried the inhabitants of Europe beyond the Atlantic, they found the inhabitants of the new world immerſed in what they reckoned barbarity, but which, however, was a ſtate of honeſt independence, and noble ſimplicity. Except the inhabitants of the great empires of Peru and Mexico, who, comparatively ſpeaking, were refined nations, the natives of America were unacquainted with almoſt every European art; even agriculture itſelf, the moſt uſeful of them all, was hardly known, or cultivated very ſparingly. The only method on which they depended for acquiring the neceſſaries of life, was by hunting the wild animals, which their mountains and foreſts ſupplied in great abundance. This exerciſe, which among them is a moſt ſerious occupation, gives a ſtrength and agility to their limbs, unknown among other nations. The ſame cauſe, perhaps, renders their bodies, in general, where the rays of the ſun are not too violent, uncommonly ſtraight and well proportioned. Their muſcles are firm and ſtrong; their bodies and heads flattiſh, which is the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as ſtrong as that of a horſe. The colour of their ſkin is a reddiſh brown, admired among them, and heightened by the conſtant uſe of bear's fat and paint. The character of the Indians is altogether founded upon their circumſtances and way of life. A people who are conſtantly employed in procuring the means of a precarious ſubſiſtence, who live by hunting the wild animals, and who are generally engaged in war with their neighbours, cannot be ſuppoſed to enjoy much gaiety of temper, or high flow of ſpirits. The Indians, therefore, are in general, grave even to ſadneſs; they have nothing of that giddy vivacity peculiar to ſome nations in Europe, and they deſpiſe it. Their behaviour to thoſe about them is regular, modeſt, and reſpectful. Ignorant of the arts of amuſement, of which that of ſaying trifles agreeably is one of the moſt conſiderable, they never ſpeak but when they have ſomething important to obſerve; and all their actions, words, and even looks, are attended with ſome meaning. This is extremely natural to men who are almoſt continually engaged in purſuits, which to them are of the higheſt importance. Their ſubſiſtence depends entirely on what they procure with their hands; and their lives, their honour, and every thing dear to them, may be loſt by the ſmalleſt inattention to the deſigns of their enemies. As they have no particular object to attach them to one place rather than another, they fly wherever they expect to find the neceſſaries of life in greateſt abundance. Cities, which are the effects of agriculture and arts, they have none. The different tribes or nations are for the ſame reaſon extremely ſmall, when compared with civilized ſocieties, in which induſtry, arts, agriculture, and commerce, have united a vaſt number of individuals, whom a complicated luxury renders uſeful to one another. Theſe ſmall tribes live at an immenſe diſtance; they are ſeparated by a deſert frontier, and hid in the boſom of impenetrable and almoſt boundleſs foreſts.

There is eſtabliſhed in each ſociety a certain ſpecies of government, which over the whole continent of America prevails with very little variation; becauſe over the whole of this continent the manners and way of life are nearly ſimilar and uniform. Without arts, riches, or luxury, the great inſtruments of ſubjection in poliſhed ſocieties, an American has no method by which he can render himſelf conſiderable among his companions, but by a ſuperiority in perſonal qualities of body or mind. But as nature has not been very laviſh in her perſonal diſtinctions, where all enjoy the ſame education, all are pretty much equal, and will deſire to remain ſo. Liberty, therefore, is the prevailing paſſion of the Americans, and their government, under the influence of this ſentiment, is better ſecured than by the wiſeſt political regulations. They are very far, however, from deſpiſing all ſorts of authority; they are attentive to the voice of wiſdom, which experience has conferred on the aged, and they enliſt under the banners of the chief, in whoſe valour and military addreſs they have learned to repoſe their confidence. In every ſociety, therefore, there is to be conſidered the power of the chief and of the elders: and according as the government inclines more to the one or to the other, it may be regarded as monarchical, or as a ſpecies of ariſtocracy. Among thoſe tribes which are moſt engaged in war, the power of the chief is naturally predominant, becauſe the idea of having a military leader, was the firſt ſource of his ſuperiority, and the continual exigencies of the ſtate requiring ſuch a leader, will continue to ſupport and even to enhance it. His power, however, is rather perſuaſive than coercive: he is reverenced as a father, rather than feared as a monarch. He has no guards, no priſons, no officers of juſtice, and one act of ill-judged violence would put him from the throne. The elders, in the other form of government, which may be conſidered as an ariſtocracy, have no more power. In ſome tribes, indeed, there are a kind of hereditary nobility, whoſe influence being conſtantly augmented by time, is more conſiderable. But this ſource of power, which depends chiefly on the imagination, by which we annex to the merit of our contemporaries that of their forefathers, is too refined to be very common among the natives of America. In moſt countries, therefore, age alone is ſufficient for acquiring reſpect, influence, and authority. It is age which teaches experience, and experience is the only ſource of knowledge among a barbarous people. Among thoſe perſons buſineſs is conducted with the utmoſt ſimplicity, and which may recal to thoſe who are acquainted with antiquity a picture of the moſt early ages. The heads of families meet together in a houſe or cabin appointed for the purpoſe. Here the buſineſs is diſcuſſed, and here thoſe of the nation, diſtinguiſhed for their eloquence or wiſdom, have an opportunity of diſplaying thoſe talents. Their orators, like thoſe of Homer, expreſs themſelves in a bold figurative ſtyle, ſtronger than refined, or rather ſoftened nations can well bear, and with geſtures equally violent, but often extremely natural and expreſſive. When the buſineſs is over, and they happen to be well provided in food, they appoint a feaſt upon the occaſion, of which almoſt the whole nation partakes. The feaſt is accompanied with a ſong, in which the real, or fabulous exploits of their forefathers are celebrated. They have dances too, though, like thoſe of the Greeks and Romans chiefly of the military kind; and their muſic and dancing accompanies every feaſt.

It often happens, that thoſe different tribes of nations, ſcattered as they are at an immenſe diſtance from one another, meet in their excurſions after prey. If there ſubſiſts no animoſity between them, which ſeldom is the caſe, they behave in the moſt friendly and courteous manner. But if they happen to be in a ſtate of war, or if there has been no previous intercourſe between them, all who are not friends, being deemed enemies, they fight with the moſt ſavage fury.

War, if we except hunting, is the only employment of the men; as to every other concern, and even the little agriculture they enjoy, it is left to the women. Their moſt common motive for entering into a war, when it does not ariſe from an accidental rencounter or interference, is either to revenge themſelves for the death of ſome loſt friend, or to acquire priſoners, who may aſſiſt them in their hunting, and whom they adopt into their ſociety. Theſe wars are either undertaken by ſome private adventurers, or at the inſtance of the whole community. In the latter caſe, all the young men, who are diſpoſed to go out to battle, for no one is compelled contrary to his inclination, give a bit of wood to the chief, as a token of their deſign to accompany him: for every thing among theſe people is tranſacted with a great deal of ceremony and many forms. The chief who is to conduct them, faſts ſeveral days, during which he converſes with no one, and is particularly careful to obſerve his dreams, which the preſumption natural to ſavages generally renders as favourable as he could desire. A variety of other superstitions and ceremonies are observed. One of the most hideous is setting the war-kettle on the fire, as an emblem that they are going out to devour their enemies, which among some nations must formerly have been the case, since they still continue to express it in clear terms, and use an emblem significant of the ancient usage. Then they dispatch a porcelane, or large shell, to their allies, inviting them to come along, and drink the blood of their enemies. For with the Americans, as with the Greeks of old,

"A generous friendship no cold medium knows,
"Burns with one love, with one resentment glows."

They think that those in their alliance must not only adopt their enmities, but have their resentment wound up to the same pitch with themselves. And, indeed, no people carry their friendships or their resentments so far as they do; and this is what should be expected from their peculiar circumstances; that principle in human nature, which is the spring of the social affections, acts with so much the greater force the more it is restrained. The Americans who live in small societies, who see few objects and few persons, become wonderfully attached to these objects and persons, and cannot be deprived of them without feeling themselves miserable. Their ideas are too confined, their breasts are too narrow to entertain the sentiment of general benevolence, or even of ordinary humanity. But this very circumstance, while it makes them cruel and savage, to an incredible degree, towards those with whom they are at war, adds a new force to their particular friendships, and to the common tie which unites the members of the same tribe, or those different tribes which are in alliance with one another. Without attending to this reflection, some facts we are going to relate would excite our wonder, without informing our reason, and we should be bewildered in a number of particulars seemingly opposite to one another, without being sensible of the general cause from which they proceed.

Having finished all the ceremonies previous to the war, they issue forth, with their faces blackened with charcoal, intermixed with streaks of vermillion, which give them a most horrid appearance. Then they exchange their clothes with their friends, and dispose of all their finery to the women, who accompany them a considerable distance to receive those last tokens of eternal friendship.

The great qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention, to give and to avoid a surprise; and indeed, in these they are superior to all nations in the world. Accustomed to continual wandering in the forests, having their perceptions sharpened by keen necessity, and living in every respect according to nature, their external senses have a degree of acuteness which at first view appears incredible. They can trace out their enemies, at an immense distance, by the smoke of their fires, which they smell, and by the tracks of their feet on the ground, imperceptible to an European eye, but which they can count and distinguish with the utmost facility. They even distinguish the different nations with whom they are acquainted, and can determine the precise time when they passed, where an European could not, with all his glasses, distinguish footsteps at all. These circumstances, however, are of small importance, because their enemies are no less acquainted with them. When they go out, therefore, they take care to avoid making use of any thing by which they might run the danger of a discovery. They light no fire to warm themselves, or to prepare their victuals; they lie close to the ground all day, and travel only in the night; and marching along in files, he that closes the rear diligently covers with leaves the tracts of his own feet, and of their's who preceded him. When they halt to refresh themselves, scouts are sent out to reconnoitre the country, and beat up every place where they suspect an enemy may lie concealed. In this manner they enter unawares the villages of their foes; and while the flower of the nation are engaged in hunting, massacre all the children, women, and helpless old men, or make prisoners of as many as they can manage, or have strength enough to be useful to their nation. But when the enemy is apprised of their design, and coming on in arms against them, they throw themselves flat on the ground among the withered herbs and leaves, which their faces are painted to resemble. Then they allow a part to pass unmolested, when all at once, with a tremendous shout, rising up from their ambush, they pour a storm of musket-bullets on their foes. The party attacked returns the same cry. Every one shelters himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give a second fire. Thus does the battle continue until the one party is so much weakened as to be incapable of farther resistance. But if the force on each side continues nearly equal, the fierce spirits of the savages, inflamed by the loss of their friends, can no longer be restrained. They abandon their distant war, they rush upon one another with clubs and hatchets in their hands, magnifying their own courage, and insulting their enemies with the bitterest reproaches. A cruel combat ensues, death appears in a thousand hideous forms, which would congeal the blood of civilized nations to behold, but which rouse the fury of savages. They trample, they insult over the dead bodies, tearing the scalp from the head, wallowing in their blood like wild beasts, and sometimes devouring their flesh. The flame rages on till it mets with no resistance; then the prisoners are secured, those unhappy men, whose fate is a thousand times more dreadful than their's who have died in the field. The conquerors set up a hideous howling to lament the friends they have lost. They approach in a melancholy and severe gloom to their own village; a messenger is sent to announce their arrival, and the women, with frightful shrieks, come out to mourn their dead brothers, or their husbands. When they are arrived, the chief relates in a low voice to the elders, a circumstantial account of every particular of the expedition. The orator proclaims aloud this account to the people, and as he mentions the names of those who have fallen, the shrieks of the women are redoubled. The men too join in these cries, according as each is most connected with the deceased by blood or friendship. The last ceremony is the proclamation of the victory; each individual then forgets his private misfortunes, and joins in the triumph of his nation; all tears are wiped from their eyes, and by an unaccountable transition, they pass in a moment from the bitterness of sorrow, to an extravagance of joy. But the treatment of the prisoners, whose fate all this time remains undecided, is what chiefly characterises the savages.

We have already mentioned the strength of their affections or resentments. United as they are in small societies, connected within themselves by the firmest ties, their friendly affections, which glow with the most intense warmth within the walls of their own village, seldom extend beyond them. They feel nothing for the enemies of their nation; and their resentment is easily extended from the individual who has injured them, to all others of the same tribe. The prisoners, who have themselves the same feelings, know the intentions of their conquerors, and are prepared for them. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the cottage, where, according to the distribution made by the elders, he is to be delivered to supply the loss of a citizen. If those who receive him have their family weakened by war or other accidents, they adopt the captive into the family, of which he becomes a member. But if they have no occasion for him, or their resentment for the loss of their friends be too high to endure the sight of any connected with those who were concerned in it, they sentence him to death. All those who have met with the same severe sentence being collected, the whole nation is assembled at the execution, as for some great solemnity. A scaffold is erected, and the prisoners are tied to the stake, where they commence their death song, and prepare for the ensuing scene of cruelty, with the most undaunted courage. Their enemies, on the other side, are determined to put it to the proof, by the most refined and exquisite tortures. They begin at the extremity of his body, and gradually approach the more vital parts. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bowl of a pipe, made red hot, which he smokes like tobacco; then they pound the toes and fingers to pieces between two stones, they pull off the flesh from the teeth, and cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting, burning, and pinching them alternately: they pull off this flesh thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them, whilst others are employed in pulling and extending their limbs in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours; and sometimes, such is the strength of the savages, days together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awake him, and renew his sufferings. He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty; they stick him all over with small matches of wood, that easily takes fire, but burns slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires, after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull, they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion, or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, even outdo the men in this scene of horror; while the principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking and looking on without the least emotion. What is most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, ſmokes too, appears unconcerned, and converſes with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there ſeems a conteſt which ſhall exceed, they in inflicting the moſt horrid pains, or he in enduring them, with a firmneſs and conſtancy almoſt above human: not a groan, not a ſigh, not a diſtortion of countenance eſcapes him; he poſſeſſes his mind entirely in the midſt of his torments; he recounts his own exploits; he informs them what cruelties he has inflicted upon their country-men, and threatens them with the revenge that will attend his death; and, though his reproaches exaſperate them to a perfect madneſs of rage and fury, he continues his inſults even of their ignorance of the art of tormenting, pointing out more exquiſite methods, and more ſenſible parts of the body to be afflicted. The women have this part of courage as well as the men; and it is as rare for any Indian to behave otherwiſe, as it would be for any European to ſuffer as an Indian. Such is the wonderful power of an early inſtitution, and a ferocious thirſt of glory. *I am brave and intrepid*, exclaims the ſavage in the face of his tormentors. *I do not fear death, nor any kind of tortures; thoſe who fear them are cowards; they are leſs than women; life is nothing to thoſe that have courage: may my enemies be confounded with deſpair and rage! Oh! that I could devour them, and drink their blood to the laſt drop!*

Theſe circumſtances of cruelty, which ſo exceedingly degrade human nature, ought not, however, to be omitted, becauſe they ſerve to ſhow, in the ſtrongeſt light, to what an inconceivable degree of barbarity, to what a pitch the paſſions of men may be carried, when untamed by the refinements of poliſhed ſociety, when let looſe from the government of reaſon, and uninfluenced by the dictates of Chriſtianity; religion that teaches compaſſion to our enemies, which is neither known nor practiſed in other inſtitutions; and it will make us more ſenſible, than ſome appear to be, of the value of commerce, the arts of a civiliſed life, and the light of literature; which, if they have abated the force of ſome of the natural virtues, by the luxury which attends them, have taken out likewiſe the ſting of our natural vices, and ſoftened the ferocity of the human race.

Nothing in the hiſtory of mankind forms a ſtronger contraſt than this cruelty of the ſavages towards thoſe with whom they are at war, and the warmth of their affection towards their friends, who conſiſt of all thoſe who live in the ſame village, or are in alliance with it; among theſe all things are common; and this, though it may in part ariſe from their not poſſeſſing very diſtinct notions of ſeparate property, is chiefly to be attributed to the ſtrength of their attachment; becauſe in every thing elſe, with their lives as well as their fortunes, they are ready to ſerve their friends. Their houſes, their proviſion, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a gueſt. Has any one of theſe ſucceeded ill in his hunting? Has his harveſt failed? or is his houſe burned? He feels no other effect of his misforrune, than that it gives him an opportunity to experience the benevolence and regard of his fellow citizens; but to the enemies of his country, or to thoſe who have privately offended him, the American is implacable. He conceals his ſentiments, he appears reconciled, until, by ſome treachery or ſurpriſe, he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is ſufficient to allay his reſentment; no diſtance of place great enough to protect the object; he croſſes the ſteepeſt mountains, he pierces the moſt impracticable foreſts, and traverſes the moſt hideous bogs and deſerts for ſeveral hundreds of miles; bearing the inclemency of the ſeaſons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed, in general, is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

But what we have said respecting the Indians would be a faint picture, did we omit observing the force of their friendship, which principally appears by the treatment of the dead. When any one of the society is cut off, he is lamented by the whole; on this occasion a thousand ceremonies are practised, denoting the most lively sorrow. Of these, the most remarkable, as it discovers both the height and continuance of their grief, is what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed by public order: and nothing is omitted, that it may be celebrated with the utmost pomp and magnificence. The neighbouring tribes are invited to be present and to join in the solemnity. At this time all who have died since the last solemn occasion (which is renewed every ten years among some tribes, and every eight among others) are taken out of their graves: those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcasses.

It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. I cannot describe it in a more lively manner than it is done by Lafitau, to whom we are indebted for the most authentic account of those nations. Without question, says he, the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human misery, in so many images of death, wherein she seems to take a pleasure to paint herself in a thousand various shapes of horror, in the several carcasses, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones; some look as if they were baked and smoked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; while others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness, gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcasses, disgustful as they are with every thing lothesome, cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders, through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged from the offensiveness of the smell, and without suffering any other emotions to arise than those of regret, for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

They bring them into their cottages, where they prepare a feast in honour of the dead: during which their great actions are celebrated, and all the tender intercourses which took place between them and their friends are piously called to mind. The strangers, who have come sometimes many hundred miles to be present on the occasion, join in the tender condolence; and the women, by frightful shrieks, demonstrate that they are pierced with the sharpest sorrow. The dead bodies are carried from the cabins for the general reinterment. A great pit is dug in the ground, and thither, at a certain time, each person, attended by his family and friends,

Plate XXII.

A
General MAP of
NORTH AMERICA
from the best
AUTHORITIES.
Longitude West 130 from London
ASIA
Icy Cape
Arctic Circle
Bristol Bay
Cooks Riv.
Pr. Williams Sound
The Sea
Great Slave
Arabasca L.
Peace River
BAFFINS BAY
GREENLAND
DAVIS'S STRAIT
C. Farewell
Hudsons Str.
HUDSONS BAY
James Bay
LABRADOR
NORTH
Newfoundland
Bank of Newfoundland
Q. Charlotte Isles
Nootka or King Geo. Sound
NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN
ASSINIPOELS
River of the West
CANADA
Quebec
QUIVIRA
Sioux
Paducas
TEGUAYO
NEW ALBION
UNITED STATES
LOUISIANA
Texas
Cenis
NEW MEXICO
NEW LEON
CALIFORNIA
GULF of CALIFORNIA
NEW NAVARRA
NEW BISCAY
MEXICO
GULF of MEXICO
W. Florida
East Florida
New Orleans
Tropic of Cancer
Philadelphia
Maryland
Virginia
N. Carolina
S. Carolina
Georgia
Charles Town
Bermudas
ATLANTIC OCEAN
BAHAMA I.
CUBA
Havanna
JAMAICA
CARIBBEAN SEA
NEW SPAIN
BAY of Honduras
Acapulco
Carthagena
C. S. Lucas
Tiguantepec
Guatimala

A General MAP of NORTH AMERICA from the best AUTHORITIES.
ASIA
Bhering Strait
Icy Cape
C. Lisbon
Arctic Circle
C. Pr. of Wales
C. Rodney
C. Darby
C. Stephens
Shoal Water
Calm P.
Bristol Bay
Cooks Riv.
Pr. Williams Sound
Foggy C.
Foggy I.
Onalaska
Oonemak
Kodiac I.
Montagu
Mt. St. Elias
Admiralty B.
Bhering B.
Pitt
Dixons Entrance
Q. Charlottes Isles
C. Farewell
NORTH
Sandwich B.
C. Charles
Belisle
C. Degat
St. John
New-found-land
Bonavista
St. John
Great Bank of Newfoundland
Race
Louisbourg
Cape Breton
Sable I.
Halifax
Entrance
Juan de Fuca
C. Foulweather
C. Gregory
C. Blanco
C. Mendocino
NORTH PACIFIC OCEAN
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Sir Fran. Drakes Harbour
New Years Harbour
Bermudas
Tropic of Cancer
Caycos
Turks I.
Virgin I.
Tortola
Anguilla
Antigua
St. Kitts
Guadeloupe
St. Cruz
Aves I.
Dominica
Martinico
St. Lucia
Barbadoes
St. Vincent
Grenada
Tobago
Trinidad
Curacao
Bonair
Orchilla
Margaretta
CARIBBEE I.
EAN SEA
Longitude West 130 from London
140
120
70
60
180
170
20
60
50
40
30
20
10

Plate XXIII.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, according to the Treaty of Peace of 1784.
Russell delin et sculp.
References to the States.
1 Vermont.
2 New Hampshire.
3 Massachusetts Bay.
4 Rhode Island.
5 Connecticut.
6 New York.
7 New Jersey.
8 Pennsylvania.
9 Delaware.
10 Maryland.
11 Virginia.
12 Kentucky.
13 North Carolina.
14 South Carolina.
15 Georgia.
UPPER CANADA
LOWER CANADA
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
LAKE ERIE
LAKE ONTARIO
Lake of the Woods
Rain L.
NADOWESSIS
CHIPAWAS
OUTIGAMIS
UTAWAS
ILLINOIS
LOUISIANA
Mississippi River
Missouri R.
Ohio River
Illinois River
Wabash Company
N. Jersey Com:
TENNASSEE GOVERNMENT
CHICKSAWS
CHACTAWS
CREEKS
COOSAS
THE MUSKOES
WEST FLORIDA
EAST FLORIDA
GULF OF MEXICO
NORTH ATLANTIC OCEAN
The Twenty Leagues line
Lake Champlain
Philadelphia
New York
Long I.
Sandy Hook
Boston
Lexington
Boonsboro
Detroit
Pittsburg
Washington
Richmond
Petersburg
Albemarle Sound
C. Hatteras
C. Fear
Charles Town
Savannah
Augusta
Port Royal
St. Augustin
New Orleans
Mouths of the Mississippi
Lake Michigan
Longitude West from London
95
90
85
80
75
70
45
40
35
30

Plate XXIII.

Lake of the Woods
Rain L.
White Bear L.
Thousand
NADOWESSIS
CANADA
R. St Peter
R. St Croix
45
Chippeway R.
Missisippi River
MAIN
SAGADAHOK
Portsmouth
C. Ann
Boston
Cape Cod
Chatham
Nantucket I.
Falmouth
Worcester
Providence
Hartford
New Haven
N. London
Sandy Hook
The Twenty Leagues Line
40
New Inlet
Missouri R.
St. Louis
F. Chartres
LOUISIANA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Sound
References to the States.
1 Vermont.
2 New Hampshire.
3 Massachusetts Bay.
4 Rhode Island.
5 Connecticut.
6 New York.
7 New Jersey.
8 Pennsylvania.
9 Delaware.
10 Maryland.
11 Virginia.
12 Kentucky.
13 North Carolina.
14 South Carolina.
15 Georgia.
35
Missisippi River
THE
UNITED STATES
OF
AMERICA,
according to the Treaty of Peace
of 1784.
Russell delin et sculp.
30
Mouth
95 Longitude West from London
70

friends, marches in solemn silence, bearing the dead body of a son, a father, or a brother. When they are all convened, the dead bodies, or the dust of those which were quite corrupted, are deposited in the pit: then the torrent of grief breaks out anew. Whatever they possess most valuable is interred with the dead. The strangers are not wanting in their generosity, and confer those presents which they have brought along with them for the purpose. Then all present go down into the pit, and every one takes a little of the earth, which they afterwards preserve with the most religious care. The bodies, ranged in order, are covered with entire new furs, and over these with bark, on which they throw stones, wood, and earth. Then taking the last farewel, they return each to his own cabin.

We have mentioned that in this ceremony the savages offer, as presents to the dead, whatever they value most highly. This custom, which is universal among them, arises from a rude notion of the immortality of the soul. They believe this doctrine most firmly, and it is the principal tenet of their religion. When the soul is separated from the body of their friends, they conceive that it still continues to hover around it, and to require and take delight in the same things with which it formerly was pleased. After a certain time, however, it forsakes this dreary mansion, and departs far westward into the land of spirits. They have even gone so far as to make a distinction between the inhabitants of the other world; some, they imagine, particularly those who in their life-time have been fortunate in war, possess a high degree of happiness, have a place for hunting and fishing, which never fails, and enjoy all sensual delights, without labouring hard in order to procure them. The souls of those, on the contrary who happen to be conquered or slain in war, are extremely miserable after death.

Their taste for war, which forms the chief ingredient in their character, gives a strong bias to their religions. Areskoui, or the god of battle, is revered as the great god of the Indians. Him they invoke before they go into the field; and, according as his disposition is more or less favourable to them, they conclude they will be more or less successful. Some nations worship the sun or moon; among others there are a number of traditions, relative to the creation of the world, and the history of the gods: traditions which resemble the Grecian fables, but which are still more absurd and inconsistent. But religion is not the prevailing character of the Indians; and except when they have some immediate occasion for the assistance of their gods, they pay them no sort of worship. Like all rude nations, however, they are strongly addicted to superstition. They believe in the existence of a number of good and bad genii, spirits who interfere in the affairs of mortals, and produce all our happiness or misery. It is from the evil genii, in particular, that our diseases proceed; and it is to the good genii we are indebted for a cure. The ministers of the genii are the jugglers, who are also the only physicians among the savages. These jugglers are supposed to be inspired by the good genii, most commonly in their dreams, with the knowledge of future events; they are called in to the assistance of the sick, and are supposed to be informed by the genii whether they will get over the disease, and in what way they must be treated. But these spirits are extremely simple in their system of physic, and, in almost every disease, direct the juggler to the same remedy. The patient is inclosed in a narrow cabin, in the midst of which is a stone red hot; on this they throw water, until he is well soaked with the warm vapour and his own sweat. Then they hurry him from the bagnio, and plunge him suddenly into the next river. This coarse method, which costs many their lives, often performs very extraordinary cures. The jugglers have likewise the use of some specifics, of wonderful efficacy; and all the savages are dexterous in curing wounds by the application of herbs. But the power of these remedies is always attributed to the magical ceremonies with which they are administered.

It should be observed by the reader, that the particulars which have just been mentioned concerning the manners of the Americans, chiefly relate to the inhabitants of North America. The manners and general characteristics of great part of the original inhabitants of South America, were very different. On the first appearance of the inhabitants of the New World, their discoveries found them to be in many particulars very unlike the generality of the people of the ancient hemisphere. They were different in their features and complexions; they were not only averse to toil, but seemed incapable of it; and when roused by force from their nativ indolence, and compelled to work, they sunk under tasks which the inhabitants of the other continent would have performed with ease. This feebleness of constitution seemed almost universal among the inhabitants of South America. The Spaniards were also struck with the smallness of their appetite for food. The constitutional temperance of the natives far exceeded, in their opinion, the abstinence of the most mortified hermits; while, on the other hand, the appetite of the Spaniards appeared to the Americans insatiably voracious; and they affirmed, that one Spaniard devoured more food in a day than was sufficient for ten Americans. But though the demands of the native Americans for food were very sparing, so limited was their agriculture, that they hardly raised what was sufficient for their own consumption. Many of the inhabitants of South America confined their industry to rearing a few plants, which, in a rich and warm climate, were easily trained to maturity; but if a few Spaniards settled in any district, such a small addition of supernumerary mouths soon exhausted their scanty stores, and brought on a famine. The inhabitants of South America, compared with those of North America, are generally more feeble in their frame, less vigorous in the efforts of their minds, of a gentle but dastardly spirit, more enslaved by pleasure, and sunk in indolence.

A General Description of AMERICA.

THIS great western continent, frequently denominated the NEW WORLD, extends from the 80th degree north, to the 56th degree south latitude; and where its breadth is known, from the 35th to the 136 degree of west longitude from London; stretching between 8 and 9000 miles in length, and in its greatest breadth 3690. It sees both hemispheres, has two summers, and a double winter, and enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords. It is washed by the two great oceans. To the eastward it has the Atlantic, which divides it from Europe and Africa. To the west it has the Pacific, or great South Sea, by which it is separated from Asia. By these seas it may, and does, carry on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is composed of two great continents, one on the north, the other on the south, which are joined by the kingdom of Mexico, which forms a sort of isthmus 1500 miles long, and in one part, at Darien, so extremely narrow, as to make the communication between the two oceans by no means difficult, being only 60 miles over. In the great gulf, which is formed between the isthmus and the northern and southern continents, lie a multitude of islands, many of them large, most of them fertile, and denominated the West Indies, in contradistinction to the countries and islands of Asia, beyond the Cape of Good Hope, which are called the East Indies.

Before we begin to treat of separate countries in their order, we must, according to just method, take notice of those mountains and rivers which disdain, as it were, to be confined within the limits of particular provinces, and extend over a great part of the continent. For though America, in general, be not a mountainous country, it has the greatest mountains in the world. In South America, the Andes, or Cordelleras, run from north to south along the coast of the Pacific Ocean. They exceed in length any chain of mountains in the other parts of the globe; extending from the isthmus of Darien to the straits of Magellan, they divide the whole southern parts of America, and run a length of 4300 miles. Their height is as remarkable as their length, for though in part within the torrid zone, they are constantly covered with snow. Chimborazo, the highest of the Andes, is 20,608 feet; of this about 2400 feet from the summit are always covered with snow. Carazon was ascended by the French astronomers, and is said to be 15,800 feet high. In North America, which is chiefly composed of gentle ascents, or level plains, we know of no considerable mountains, except those towards the pole, and that long ridge which lies on the back of the American States, separating them from Canada and Louisiana, which we call the Apalachian or Alligany mountains; if that may be considered as a mountain, which upon one side is extremely lofty, but upon the other is nearly a level with the rest of the country.

America is, without question, that part of the globe which is best watered: and that not only for the support of life, and all the purposes of fertility, but for the convenience of trade, and the intercourse of each part with the others. In North America, such is the wisdom and goodness of the Creator of the universe, those vast tracts of country, situated beyond the Apalachian mountains, at an immense and unknown distance from the ocean, are watered by inland seas, called the Lakes of Canada, which not only communicate with each other, but give rise to several great rivers, particularly the Mississippi, running from north to south till it falls into the Gulf of Mexico, after a course, including its turnings, of 4500 miles, and receiving in its progress the vast tribute of the Illinois, the Misaures, the Ohio, and other great rivers, scarcely inferior to the Rhine or the Danube; and on the north, the river St. Laurence, running a contrary course from the Mississippi, till it empties itself into the ocean near Newfoundland; all of them being almost navigable to their heads, lay open the inmost recesses of this great continent, and afford such an inlet for commerce, as must produce the greatest advantage, whenever the country adjacent shall come to be fully inhabited by an industrious and civilized people. The eastern side of North America, besides the noble rivers Hudson, Delaware, Susquehana, and Potowmack, supplies several others of great depth, length, and commodious navigation: hence many parts of the settlements are so advantageously intersected with navigable rivers and creeks, that the planters, without exaggeration, may be said to have each a harbour at his door.

South America is, if possible, in this respect even more fortunate. It supplies much the two largest rivers in the world, the river of Amazons, and the Rio de la Plata, or Plate River. The first rising in Peru not far from the South Sea, passes from west to east, and falls into the ocean between Brazil and Guiana, after a course of more than 3000 miles, in which it receives a prodigious number of great and navigable rivers. The Rio de la Plata rises in the heart of the country, and having its strength gradually augmented, by an accession of many powerful streams, discharges itself with such vehemence into the sea, as to make its taste fresh for many leagues from land. Besides these, there are other rivers in South America, of which the Oronoko is the most considerable.

A country of such vast extent on each side of the equator, must necessarily have a variety of soils as well as climates. It is a treasury of nature, producing most of the metals, minerals, plants, fruits, trees, and wood, to be met with in the other parts of the world, and many of them in greater quantities and high perfection. The gold and silver of America have supplied Europe with such immense quantities of those valuable metals, that they are become vastly more common; so that the gold and silver of Europe now bears little proportion to the high price set upon them before the discovery of America.

This country also produces diamonds, pearls, emeralds, amethysts, and other valuable stones, which, by being brought into Europe, have contributed likewise to lower their value. To these, which are chiefly the production of Spanish America, may be added a great number of other commodities, which, though of less price, are of much greater use, and many of them make the ornament and wealth of the British empire in this part of the world. Of these are the plentiful supplies of cochineal, indigo, anatto, logwood, brazil, fustic, pimento, lignum vitæ, rice, ginger, cocoa, or the chocolate nut; sugar, cotton, tobacco, banillas, red-wood, the balsams of Tolu, Peru, and Chili, that valuable article in medicine the Jesuit's bark, mechoacan, sassafras, sarsaparilla, cassia, tamarinds, hides, furs, ambergris, and a great variety of woods, roots, and plants, to which before the discovery of America, we were either entire strangers, or forced to buy at an extravagant rate from Asia and Africa, through the hands of the Venetians and Genoese, who then engrossed the trade of the eastern world.

This continent has also a variety of excellent fruits, which here grow wild to great perfection; as pine-apples, pomegranates, citrons, lemons, oranges, malicatons, cherries, pears, apples, figs, grapes, great numbers of culinary, medicinal, and other herbs, roots, and plants: and so fertile is the soil, that many exotic productions are nourished in as great perfection as in their native ground.

Though the Indians still live in the quiet possession of many large tracts, America, so far as known, is chiefly claimed, and divided into colonies, by three European nations, the Spanish, English, and Portuguese. The Spaniards, as they first discovered it, have the largest and richest portions, extending from New Mexico and Lousiana, in North America, to the Straits of Magellan, in the South Sea, excepting the large province of Brazil, which belongs to Portugal; for though the French and Dutch have some forts upon Surinam and Guiana, they scarcely deserve to be considered as proprietors of any part of the southern continent.

Next to Spain, the most considerable proprietor of America was Great Britain, who derived her claim to North America from the first discovery of that continent by Sebastian Cabot, in the name of Henry VII, anno 1497, about six years after the discovery of South America by Columbus, in the name of the king of Spain. This country was in general called Newfoundland, a name which is now appropriated solely to an island upon its coaſt. It was a long time before we made any attempt to ſettle this country. Sir Walter Raleigh, an uncommon genius, and a brave commander, firſt ſhowed the way, by planting a colony in the ſouthern part, which he called Virginia, in honour of his miſtreſs, queen Elizabeth.

The French, indeed, from this period until the concluſion of the war in 1763, laid a claim to, and actually poſſeſſed, Canada and Louiſiana, comprehending all that extenſive inland country, reaching from Hudſon's Bay on the north, to Mexico, and the gulf of the ſame name, on the ſouth: regions which all Europe could not people in the courſe of many ages: but no territory, however extenſive, no empire, however boundleſs, could gratify the ambition of that aſpiring nation: hence, under the moſt ſolemn treaties, they continued in a ſtate of hoſtility, making gradual advances upon the back of our ſettlements, and rendering their acquiſitions more ſecure and permanent by a chain of forts, well ſupplied with all the implements of war. At the ſame time they laboured inceſſantly to gain the friendſhip of the Indians, by various arts, even by intermarriages, and whom they not only trained to the uſe of arms, but infuſed into theſe ſavages the moſt unfavourable notions of the Engliſh, and the ſtrength of their nation. The Britiſh colonies, thus hemmed in, and confined to a ſlip of land along the ſea-coaſt, by an ambitious and powerful nation, the rivals and the natural enemies of Great Britain, began in 1755, to take the alarm. The Britiſh empire in America, yet in its infancy, was threatened with a total diſſolution. The colonies, in their diſtreſs, called out aloud to the mother-country. The bulwarks, and the thunder of England, were ſent to their relief, accompanied with powerful armies, well appointed, and commanded by a ſet of heroes, the Scipios of that age. A long war ſucceeded, which ended glorioufly for Great Britain; for, after oceans of blood were ſpilt, and every inch of ground was bravely diſputed, the French were not only driven from Canada and its dependencies, but obliged to relinquiſh all that part of Louiſiana, lying on the eaſt ſide of the Miſſiſſippi.

Thus, at an immenſe expence, and with the loſs of many brave men, our colonies were preſerved, ſecured, and extended ſo far, as to render it difficult to aſcertain the preciſe bounds of our empire in North America, to the northern and weſtern ſides; for to the northward, it ſhould ſeem that we might have extended our claim quite to the pole itſelf, nor did any nation ſeem inclined to diſpute the property of this northermoſt country with us. But our flattering proſpects reſpecting our American poſſeſſions, have been annihilated by that unhappy conteſt between the mother-country and the colonies, which, after eight years continuance, with great expence of treaſure and blood, ended in the eſtabliſhment of a new Republic, ſtyled "The Thirteen United States of America." The territory of the United States contains, by computation, a million of ſquare miles, in which are,

in which are,	acres	640,000,000	
	Deduct	51,000,000	of water
		589,000,000	of land

The extent of unappropriated weſtern territory, containing 222,000,000 of acres, is transferred to the federal government, and is pledged as a fund for ſinking the national debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new ſtates, with republican conſtitutions ſimilar to the others.

The multitude of iſlands, which lie between the two continents of North and South America, are divided amongſt the Spaniards, Engliſh, and

French.

French. The Dutch indeed possess three or four small islands, which in any other hands would be of no consequence; and the Danes have one or two, but they hardly deserve to be named among the proprietors of America. We shall now proceed to the particular provinces, beginning, according to our method, with the north; but Labrador, or New Britain, and the country round Hudson's Bay, with those vast regions towards the Pole, are little known.

A summary view of the first settlements of NORTH AMERICA.

Names of places.	when settled.	By whom.
Quebec - - - -	1608	By the French.
Virginia June 10,	1609	By Lord de la War.
Newfoundland June	1610	By Governor John Guy.
New York, New Jersey about	1614	By the Dutch.
Plymouth - - -	1620	By part of Mr. Robinson's congregation.
New Hampshire -	1623	By a small English colony, near the mouth of Piscataqua river.
Delawar, Pennsylvania -	1627	By the Swedes and Fins.
Massachuset's Bay -	1628	By Capt. John Endicot and Company.
Maryland - - -	1633	By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholics.
Connecticut - -	1635	By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Island - -	1635	By Mr. Roger Williams, and his persecuted brethren.
New Jersey - -	1664	Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II; and made a distinct government and settled some time before this by the English.
South Carolina - -	1669	By Governor Sale.
Pennsylvania - -	1682	By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North Carolina, about	1728	Erected into a separate government, settled before by the English.
Georgia - - - -	1732	By General Oglethorpe.
Kentucky - - -	1773	By Col. Daniel Boon.
Vermont - - -	1777	By emigrants from Connecticut, and other parts of New England.
Territory NW. of Ohio River.	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

The

The Grand Divisions of NORTH AMERICA.

Colonies.	Leng.	Bread	Sq. Miles.	Chief Towns.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belongs to
New Britain	850	750	318,750			Great Britain
Province of Quebec	600	200	100,000	Quebec		Ditto
New Scotland / New Bruns.	350	250	57,000	Halifax / Shelburne		Ditto
New England	550	200	87,400	Boston	2760 W.	United States
New York	300	150	24,000	New York		Ditto
New Jersey	160	60	10,000	Perth Amboy		Ditto
Pennsylvania	300	240	15,000	Philadelphia		Ditto
Maryland	140	135	12,000	Annapolis		Ditto
Virginia	750	240	80,000	Williamsburg		Ditto
North Caro. / South Caro. / Georgia	700	380	110,000	Edenton / Charles-town / Savannah		Ditto / Ditto / Ditto
East Florida / West Florida	500	440	100,000	St. Augustine / Pensacola		Spain / Ditto
Louisiana	1200	645	516,000	New Orleans	4080 S.W.	Ditto
New Mexico & California	2000	1000	600,000	St. Fee / St. Juan	4320 SW.	Ditto / Ditto
Mexico, or New Spain	2000	600	318,000	Mexico	4900 SW.	Ditto

The Thirteen United States - - - 238,000 Sq. Miles.

British Possessions in North America. } Province of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick } - 150,000

Grand Divisions of SOUTH AMERICA.

Nations.	Leng.	Bread.	Sq. Miles.	Chief Cities.	Dist. & bearing from London.	Belong to
Terra Firma	1400	700	700,000	Panama	4650 SW.	Spain
Peru	1800	600	970,000	Lima	5520 SW.	Ditto
Amazonia, a very large country, but little known to the Europeans, 1200 L. 900 B.						
Guiana	780	480	250,000	Surinam / Cayenne	3840 SW.	Dutch / French
Brazil	2560	700	940,000	St. Sebastian	6000 SW.	Portugal
Parag. or La Plata	1500	1000	1,000,000	Buen. Ayres	6040 SW.	Spain
Chili	1200	500	206,000	St. Jago	6600 SW.	Spain
Terra Magellanica, or Patagonia	1400	460	325,000	The Spaniards took possession of it, but did not think it worth while to settle there.		

The principal Islands of NORTH AMERICA belonging to Europeans, are

	Islands.	Length.	Breadth.	Square Miles.	Chief Towns.	Belongs to
In the Gulf of St. Lawr.	Newfoundland	350	200	35,500	Placentia	Great Britain
	Cape Britain	110	80	4,000	Louisburg	Ditto
	St. John's	60	30	500	CharlotteTown	Ditto
In the Atlan.	The Bermuda Isles	20,000 acres		40	St. George	Ditto
	The Bahama ditto	very numerous			Nassau	Ditto
West India Islands, lying in the Atlantic, between North and South America.	Jamaica	140	60	6,000	Kingston	Ditto
	Barbadoes	21	14	140	Bridgetown	Ditto
	St. Christopher	20	7	80	Basse-terre	Ditto
	Antigua	20	20	100	St. John's	Ditto
	Nevis and Montserrat	each of these is 18 circum.			Charles Town Plymouth	Ditto Ditto
	Barbuda	20	12	60		Ditto
	Anguilla	30	10	60		Ditto
	Dominica	28	13	150	Rousseau	Ditto
	St. Vincent	24	18	150	Kingston	Ditto
	Granada	30	15	150	St. George's	Ditto
	Tobago	32	9	108		France
	Cuba	700	90	38,400	Havannah	Spain
	Hispaniola	450	150	36,000	St. Domingo	Do & France
	Porto Rico	100	49	3,200	Porto Rico	Spain
	Trinidad	90	60	2,897	St. Joseph	Ditto
	Margarita	40	24	624		Ditto
	Martinico	60	30	300	St. Peter's	France
	Guadaloupe	45	38	250	Basse-terre	Ditto
	St. Lucia	23	12	90		Ditto
	St. Bartholomew Deseada, and Marigalanta	all of them inconsiderable.				Ditto Ditto Ditto
	St. Eustatia	29	circum.		The Bay	Dutch
	Carassou	30	10	342		Ditto
	St. Thomas	15	circum.			Denmark
	St. Croix	30	10		Basse End	Ditto

British Islands in North America, and the West Indies. } 46,930 square miles.

BRITISH

BRITISH AMERICA.

NEW BRITAIN.

Situation and extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 850	between	50 and 70 north latitude	318,750.
Breadth 750		50 and 100 west longitude	

NEW BRITAIN, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and commonly called the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, now North and South Wales, is bounded by unknown lands and frozen seas, about the pole, on the North; by the Atlantic ocean on the East; by the bay and river of St. Laurence and Canada, on the South; and by unknown lands on the West. Its length is computed at 850 miles, and 750 broad.

Mountains.] The tremendous high mountains in this country towards the North, their being covered with eternal snow, and the winds blowing from thence three quarters of the year, occasion a degree of cold in the winter, over all this country, which is not experienced in any other part of the world in the same latitude.

Rivers, bays, straits, and capes.} These are numerous, and take their names generally from the English navigators and commanders, by whom they are first discovered. The principal bay is that of Hudson, and the principal straits are those of Hudson, Davis, and Belleisle.

Soil and produce.] This country is extremely barren; to the northward of Hudson's Bay; even the hardy pine-tree is seen no longer, and the cold womb of the earth has been supposed incapable of any better production than some miserable shrubs. Every kind of European seed, which we have committed to the earth, in this inhospitable climate, has hitherto perished; but in all probability, we have not tried the seed of corn from the northern parts of Sweden and Norway; in such cases, the place from whence the seed comes is of great moment. All this severity, and long continuance of winter, and the barrenness of the earth which comes from thence is experienced in the latitude of fifty-one; in the temperate latitude of Cambridge.

Animals.] These are the moose deer, stags, rein-deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermins, wild cats, and hares. Of the feathered kind, they have geese, bustards, ducks, partridges, and all manner of wild fowls. Of fish, there are whales, morses, seals, cod-fish, and a white fish preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout. There have been taken at Port Nelson, in one season, ninety thousand partridges, which are here as large as hens, and twenty-five thousand hares.

All the animals of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals. When that season is over, which holds only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow: every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprising phænomenon; but what is yet more surprising, and what is indeed one of the most striking things, that draw the most attentive to an admiration of the wisdom and goodness of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from England, that have been carried into Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair, than they had originally.

Before we advance farther in the description of America, it may be proper to observe in general, that all the quadrupeds of this new world are less than those of the old; even such as are carried from hence to breed there, are often found to degenerate, but are never seen to improve. If, with respect to size, we should compare the animals of the new and the old world, we shall find the one bear no manner of proportion to the other. The Asiatic elephant, for instance, often grows to above fifteen feet high while the tapurettee, which is the largest native of America, is not bigger than a calf of a year old. The lama, which some also call the American camel, is still less. Their beasts of prey are quite divested of that courage which is so often fatal to man in Africa or Asia. They have no lions, nor properly, speaking, either leopard or tyger. Travellers, however, have affixed those names to such ravenous animals as are there found most to resemble those of the ancient continent. The congar, the taquar, and the taquaretti among them are despicable, in parison of the tyger, the leopard, and the panther of Asia. The tyger of Bengal has been known to measure six feet in length, without including the tail; while the congar, or American tyger, as some affect to call it, seldom exceeds three. All the animals, therefore in the southern parts of America, are different from those of the southern parts of the ancient continent; nor does there appear to be any common to both, but those which being able to bear the colds of the north, have travelled from one continent to the other. Thus, the bear, the wolf, the rein-deer, the stag, and the beaver, are known as well by the inhabitants of New Britain and Canada, as Russia; while the lion, the leopard, and the tyger, which are natives of the south with us, are utterly unknown in Southern America. But if the quadrupeds of America be smaller than those of the ancient continent, they are in much greater abundance; for it is a rule that obtains through nature, and evidently points out the wisdom of the Author of it, that the smallest animals multiply in the greatest proportion. The goat, exported from Europe to Southern America, in a few generations becomes much less; but then it also becomes more prolific, and instead of one kid at a time, or two at the most, generally produces five, six, and sometimes more. The wisdom of Providence in making formidable animals unprolific is obvious; had the elephant, the rhinoceros, and the lion, the same degree of fecundity with the rabbit, or the rat, all the arts of man would soon be unequal to the contest; and we would soon perceive them become the tyrants of those who call themselves the masters of the creation.

Persons and habits.] The men in this country show great ingenuity in their manner of kindling a fire, in clothing themselves and in preserving their eyes from the ill effects of that glaring white which every where surrounds them, for the greatest part of the year: in other respects they are very savage. In their shapes and faces they do not resemble the Americans who live to the southward: they are much more like the Laplanders and the Samoeids of Europe already described.

Discovery and commerce.] The knowledge of these northern seas and countries was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped, and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of discovery it seems manifest, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Forbisher only discovered the main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northerly coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure; the first in 1607; the second in 1608; and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into this new Mediterranean, the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he staid here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries; but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him, and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the icy seas, in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or, gaining the unhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Another attempt towards a discovery was made in 1746, by captain Ellis, who wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half; but though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to this country. The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay, and they have acted under it ever since, with great benefit to the private men who compose the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interested, not to say iniquitous spirit has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ but four ships and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales, Churchill, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. The French attacked, took, and made some depredations on them the last war, it was said, to the amount of 400,000l. They export commodities to the value of 16,000l. and bring home returns to the value of 29,340l. which yield to the revenue 3,734l. This includes the fishery in Hudson's bay. This commerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities we exchange with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, such things are sent of which we have the greatest plenty, and which, in the mercantile phrase, are drugs with us. Though the workmanship may happen to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilized people would take it off our hands, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs we bring from Hudson's Bay, enter largely into our manufactures, and afford us materials for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage.

CANADA, or the PROVINCE OF QUEBEC.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 600	between	61 and 81 weſt longitude	100,000
Breadth 200		45 and 52 north latitude	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Britain and Hudſon's Bay, on the North and Eaſt; by Nova Scotia, New England, and New York on the South; and by unknown lands on the Weſt.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] The climate of this province is not very different from the colonies mentioned above; but as it is much farther from the ſea, and more northerly than a great part of theſe provinces, it has a much ſeverer winter, though the air is generally clear; but, like moſt of thoſe American tracts, that do not lie too far to the northward, the ſummers are very hot, and exceedingly pleaſant.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the ſoil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleaſant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other ſorts of grains, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The iſle of Orleans, near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Laurence, and other rivers, are remarkable for the richneſs of their ſoil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent graſs, and breed vaſt numbers of great and ſmall cattle. As we are now entering upon the cultivated provinces of Britiſh America, and as Canada is upon the back of the United States, and contains almoſt all the different ſpecies of wood and animals that are found in theſe provinces, we ſhall, to avoid repetitions, ſpeak of them here at ſome length.

TIMBER AND PLANTS.] The uncultivated parts of North America contain the greateſt foreſts in the world. They are a continued wood, not planted by the hands of men, and in all appearance as old as the world itſelf. Nothing is more magnificent to the ſight; the trees loſe themſelves in the clouds; and there is ſuch a prodigious variety of ſpecies, that even among thoſe perſons who have taken moſt pains to know them, there is not one perhaps that knows half the number. The province we are deſcribing produces, amongſt others, two ſorts of pines, the white and the red; four ſorts of firs; two ſorts of cedar and oak, the white and the red; the male and the female maple; three ſorts of aſh trees, the free, the mungrel, and the baſtard; three ſorts of walnut-trees, the hard, the ſoft, and the ſmooth; vaſt numbers of beech-trees, and white wood; white and red elms, and poplars. The Indians hollow the red elms into canoes, ſome of which, made out of one piece, will contain 20 perſons; others are made of the bark, the different pieces of which they ſew together with the inner rind, and dawb over the ſeam with pitch, or rather a bituminous matter reſembling pitch, to prevent their leaking; and the ribs of theſe canoes are made of boughs of trees. About November the bears and wild cats take up their habitations in the hollow elms, and remain there till April. Here are are alſo found cherry-trees, plum-trees, the vinegar-tree, the fruit of which, infuſed in water, produces vinegar; an aquatic plant, called alaco, the fruit of which may be made into a confection; the white thorn; the cotton-tree, on the top of which grow several tufts of flowers, which when shaken in the morning before the dew falls off, produce honey, that may be boiled up into sugar, the seed being a pod, containing a very fine kind of cotton; the sun-plant which resembles a marigold, and grows to the height of seven or eight feet; Turkey corn; French beans; gourds, melons, capillaire, and the hop-plant.

METALS AND MINERALS.] Near Quebec is a fine lead mine, and in some of the mountains, we are told, silver has been found. This country also abounds with coals.

RIVERS.] The rivers branching through this country are very numerous, and many of them large, bold, and deep. The principal are, the Outtauais, St. John's, Seguinay, Despraires, and Trois Rivières, but they are all swallowed up by the river St. Laurence. This river issues from the lake Ontario, and taking its course north-east, washes Montreal, where it receives the Outtauais, and forms many fertile islands. It continues the same course, and meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, where it is navigable for large vessels; and below Quebec, 320 miles from the sea, it becomes broad, and so deep, that ships of the line contributed, in the war before the last, to reduce that capital. After receiving in its progress innumerable streams, this great river falls into the ocean at Cape Rosieres, where it is 90 miles broad, and where the cold is intense, and the sea boisterous. In its progress it forms a variety of bays, harbours, and islands, many of them are fruitful, and extremely pleasant.

LAKES.] The great river St. Laurence is that only upon which the French (now subjects of Great Britain) have settlements of any note; but if we look forward into futurity, it is nothing improbable that Canada, and those vast regions to the west, will be enabled of themselves to carry on a considerable trade upon the great lakes of fresh water which these countries environ. Here are five lakes, the smallest of which is a piece of sweet water, greater than any in the other parts of the world; this is the lake Ontario, which is not less than 200 leagues in circumference; Erie, or Oswego, longer, but not so broad, is about the same extent. That of the Huron spreads greatly in width, and is in circumference not less than 300, as is that of Michigan, though, like lake Erie, it is rather long and comparatively narrow. But the lake Superior, which contains several large islands, is 500 leagues in the circuit. All of these are navigable by any vessels, and they all communicate with one another, except that the passage between Erie and Ontario is interrupted by a stupendous fall or cataract, which is called the Falls of Niagara. The water here is about half a mile wide, where the rock crosses it, not in a direct line, but in the form of a half moon. When it comes to the perpendicular fall, which is 150 feet, no words can express the consternation of travellers at seeing so great a body of water falling, or rather violently thrown, from so great a height, upon the rocks below; from which it again rebounds to a very great height, appearing as white as snow, being all converted into foam, through those violent agitations. The noise of this fall is often heard at the distance of 15 miles, and sometimes much farther. The vapour arising from the fall may sometimes be seen at a great distance, appearing like a cloud, or pillar of smoke, and in the appearance of a rainbow, whenever the sun and the position of the traveller favours. Many beasts and fowls here lose their lives, by attempting to swim, or cross the stream in the rapids above the fall, and are found dashed in pieces below; and sometimes the Indians, through carelessness or drunkenness, have met with the same fate; and perhaps no place in the world is frequented by such a number of eagles as are invited hither by the carnage of deer, elks, bears, &c. on which they feed. The river St. Laurence, as we have already observed, is the outlet of these lakes; by this they discharge themselves into the ocean. The French, when in possession of the province, built forts at the several straits by which these lakes communicate with each other, as well as where the last of them communicates with the river. By these they effectually secured to themselves the trade of the lakes, and an influence upon all the nations of America which lay near them.

ANIMALS.] These make the most curious, and hitherto the most interesting part of the natural history of Canada. It is to the spoils of these that we owe the materials of many of our manufactures, and most of the commerce as yet carried on between us and the country we have been describing. The animals that find shelter and nourishment in the immense forests of Canada, and which indeed traverse the uncultivated parts of all this continent, are stags, elks, deer, bears, foxes, martins, wild cats, ferrets, weasels, squirrels of a large size and greyish hue, hares, and rabbits. The southern parts in particular breed great numbers of wild bulls, deer of a small size, divers sorts of roebucks, goats, wolves, &c. The marshes, lakes, and pools, which in this country are very numerous, swarm with otters, beavers or castors, of which the white are highly valued being scarce, as well as the right black kind. The American beaver, though resembling the creature known in Europe by that name, has many particulars which render it the most curious animal we are acquainted with. It is near four feet in length, and weighs sixty or seventy pounds; they live from fifteen to twenty years, and the females generally bring forth four young ones at a time. It is an amphibious quadruped, that continues not long at a time in the water, but yet cannot live without frequently bathing in it. The savages, who waged a continual war with this animal, believed it to be a rational creature, that it lived in society, and was governed by a leader, resembling their own sachem, or prince.—It must indeed be allowed, that the curious accounts given of this animal by ingenious travellers, the manner in which it contrives its habitation, provides food to serve during the winter, and always in proportion to the continuance and severity of it, are sufficient to show the near approaches of instinct to reason, and even in some instances the superiority of the former. Their colours are different; black, brown, white, yellow and straw colour; but it is observed, that the lighter their colour, the less quantity of fur they are clothed with, and live in warmer climates. The furs of the beaver are of two kinds, the dry and the green; the dry fur is the skin before it is applied to any use; the green are the furs that are worn, after being sewed to one another, by the Indians, who besmear them with unctuous substances, which not only render them more pliable, but give the fine down, that is manufactured into hats, that oily quality which renders it proper to be worked up with the dry fur. Both the Dutch and English have of late found the secret of making excellent cloths, gloves, and stockings, as well as hats, from the beaver fur. Besides the fur, this useful animal produces the true castoreum, which is contained in bags in the lower part of the belly, different from the testicles: the value of this drug is well known. The flesh of the beaver is a most delicious food, but when boiled it has a disagreeable relish.

The musk rat is a diminutive kind of beaver (weighing about five or six pounds) which it resembles in every thing but its tail; and affords a very strong musk.

The elk is of the ſize of a horſe or mule. Many extraordinary medicinal qualities, particularly for curing the falling ſickneſs, are aſcribed to the hoof of the left foot of this animal. Its fleſh is very agreeable and nouriſhing, and its colour a mixture of light grey and dark red. They love the cold countries; and when the winter affords them no graſs, they gnaw the bark of trees. It is dangerous to approach very near this animal when he is hunted, as he ſometimes ſprings furiouſly on his purſuers, and tramples them to pieces. To prevent this, the hunter throws his clothes to him, and while the deluded animal ſpends his fury on theſe, he takes proper meaſures to diſpatch him.

There is a carnivorous animal here, called the carcajou, of the feline or cat kind, with a tail ſo long, that Charlevoix ſays he twiſted it ſeveral times round his body. Its body is about two feet in length, from the end of the ſnout to the tail. It is ſaid, that this animal, winding himſelf about a tree, will dart from thence upon the elk, twiſt his ſtrong tail round his body, and cut his throat in a moment.

The buffaloe, a kind of wild ox, has much the ſame appearance with thoſe of Europe: his body is covered with a black wool, which is highly eſteemed. The fleſh of the female is very good; and the buffaloe hides are as ſoft and pliable as chamois leather, but ſo very ſtrong, that the bucklers which the Indians make uſe of are hardly penetrable by a muſket ball. The Canadian roebuck is a domeſtic animal, but differs in no other reſpect from thoſe of Europe. Wolves are ſcarce in Canada, but they afford the fineſt furs in all the country. Their fleſh is white, and good to eat; and they purſue their prey to the tops of the talleſt trees. The black foxes are greatly eſteemed, and very ſcarce; but thoſe of other colours are more common: and ſome on the Upper Miſſiſſippi are of a ſilver colour, and very beautiful. They live upon water fowls, which they decoy within their clutches by a thouſand antic tricks, and then ſpring upon, and devour them. The Canadian pole-cat has a moſt beautiful white fur, except the tip of his tail, which is as black as jet. Nature has given this animal no defence but its urine, the ſmell of which is nauſeous and intolerable; this, when attacked, it ſprinkles plentifully on its tail, and throws it on the aſſailant. The Canadian wood-rat is of a beautiful ſilver colour, with a buſhy tail, and twice as big as the European; the female carries under her belly a bag, which ſhe opens and ſhuts at pleaſure; and in that ſhe places her young when purſued. Here are three ſorts of ſquirrels; that called the flying ſquirrel will leap forty paces and more, from one tree to another. This little animal is eaſily tamed, and is very lively, except when aſleep, which is often the caſe; and he puts up wherever he can find a place, in one's ſleeve, pocket, or muff; he firſt pitches on his maſter, whom he will diſtinguiſh among twenty perſons. The Canadian porcupine is leſs than a middling dog; when roaſted, he eats full as well as a ſucking pig. The hares and rabbits differ little from thoſe in Europe, only they turn grey in winter. There are two ſorts of bears here, one of a reddiſh, and the other of a black colour; but the former is the moſt dangerous. The bear is not naturally fierce, unleſs when wounded or oppreſſed with hunger. They run themſelves very poor in the month of July, when it is ſomewhat dangerous to meet them; and they are ſaid to ſupport themſelves during the winter, when the ſnow lies from four to ſix feet deep, by ſucking their paws. Scarcely any thing among the Indians is undertaken with greater ſolemnity than hunting the bear; and an alliance with a noted bear hunter, who has killed ſeveral in one day, is more eagerly ſought after, than that of one who has rendered himself famous in war. The reason is, because the chace supplies the family with both food and raiment.

Of the feathered creation they have eagles, falcons, goshawks, tercois, partridges, grey, red, and black, with long tails, which they spread out as a fan, and make a very beautiful appearance. Woodcocks are scarce in Canada, but snipes, and other water game, are plentiful. A Canadian raven is said by some writers to eat as well as a pullet, and an owl better. Here are black-birds, swallows, and larks; no less than twenty-two different species of ducks, and a great number of swans, turkeys, geese, bustards, teal, water-hens, cranes, and other large water-fowl; but always at a distant from houses. The Canadian wood-pecker, is a beautiful bird. Thrushes and goldfinches are found here; but the chief Canadian bird of melody is the white-bird, which is a kind or ortolan, very showy, and remarkable for announcing the return of spring. The fly-bird is thought to be the most beautiful of any in nature; with all his plumage, he is no bigger than a cock-chafer, and he makes a noise with his wings like the humming of a large fly.

Among the reptiles of this country, the rattle-snake chiefly deserves attention. Some of these are as big as a man's leg, and they are long in proportion. What is most remarkable in this animal is the tail, which is scaly like a coat of mail, and on which it is said there grows every year one ring or row of scales; so that they know its age by its tail, as we do that of a horse by its teeth. In moving it makes a rattling noise, from which it takes its name. The bite of this serpent is mortal, if a remedy is not applied immediately. In all places where this dangerous reptile is bred, there grows a plant, which is called rattle-snake herb, the root of which (such is the goodness of Providence) is a certain antidote against the venom of this serpent, and that with the most simple preparation; for it requires only to be pounded or chewed, and applied like a plaster to the wound. The rattle-snake seldom bites passengers, unless it is provoked; and never darts itself at any person without first rattling three times with its tail. When pursued, if it has but a little time to recover, it folds itself round, with the head in the middle, and then darts itself with great fury and violence against its pursuers; nevertheless, the savages chace it, and find its flesh very good; and being also of a medicinal quality, it is used by the American apothecaries in particular cases.

Some writers are of opinion that the fisheries in Canada, if properly improved, would be more likely to enrich that country than even the fur trade. The river St. Laurence contains perhaps the greatest variety of any in the world, and these in the greatest plenty and of the best sorts.

Besides a great variety of other fish in the rivers and lakes, are sea-wolves, sea-cows, porpoises, the lencornet, the goberque, the sea plaise; salmon, trout, turtle, lobsters, the chaourasou, sturgeon, the achigau; the gilthead, tunny, shad, lamprey, smelts, conger-eels, mackarel, soals, herrings, anchovies, and pilchards. The sea-wolf, so called from its howling, is an amphibious creature; the largest are said to weigh two thousand pounds; their flesh is good eating; but the profit of it lies in the oil, which is proper for burning and currying of leather; their skins make excellent coverings for trunks, and though not so fine as Morocco leather, they preserve their freshness better, and are less liable to cracks. The shoes and boots made of those skins let in no water, and, when properly tanned, make excellent and lasting covers for seats. The Canadian sea cow is larger than the sea wolf, but resembles it in figure: it has two teeth of the thickness and length of a man's arm, that, when grown, look like horns, and are very fine ivory, as well as its other teeth. Some of the porpoiſes of the river St. Laurence are ſaid to yield a hogſhead of oil; and of their ſkins waiſtcoats are made, which are exceſſively ſtrong, and muſket proof. The lencornet is a kind of cuttle fiſh, quite round, or rather oval: there are three ſorts of them, which differ only in ſize; ſome being as large as a hogſhead, and others but a foot long; they catch only the laſt, and that with a torch; they are excellent eating. The goberque has the taſte and ſmell of a ſmall cod. The ſea-plaiſe is good eating; they are taken with long poles armed with iron hooks. The chaouraſon is an armed fiſh, about five feet long, and as thick as a man's thigh, reſembling a pike; but are covered with ſcales that are proof againſt a dagger; its colour is a ſilver grey; and there grows under his mouth a long boney ſubſtance, ragged at the edges. One may eaſily conceive, that an animal ſo well fortified is a ravager among the inhabitants of the water; but we have few inſtances of fiſh making prey of the feathered creation, which this fiſh does, however, with much art. He conceals himſelf among the canes and reeds, in ſuch a manner that nothing is to be ſeen beſides his weapon, which he holds raiſed perpendicularly above the ſurface of the water; the fowls which come to take reſt, imagining the weapon to be only a withered reed, perch upon it; but they are no ſooner alighted, than the fiſh opens its throat, and makes ſuch a ſudden motion to ſeize his prey, that it ſeldom eſcapes him. This fiſh is an inhabitant of the lakes. The ſturgeon is both a freſh and ſalt-water fiſh, taken on the coaſt of Canada and the lakes, from eight to twelve feet long, and proportionably thick. There is a ſmall kind of ſturgeon, the fleſh of which is very tender and delicate. The achigau, and the gilthead, are fiſh peculiar to the river St. Laurence. Some of the rivers breed a kind of crocodile, that differs but little from thoſe of the Nile.

INHABITANTS AND PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Before the late war, the banks of the river St. Laurence, above Quebec, were vaſtly populous; but we cannot preciſely determine the number of French and Engliſh ſettled in this province, who are undoubtedly upon the increaſe. In the year 1783, Canada and Labrador were ſuppoſed to contain about 130,000 inhabitants *. The different tribes of Indians in Canada are almoſt innumerable; but thoſe people are obſerved to decreaſe in population where the Europeans are moſt numerous, owing chiefly to the immoderate uſe of ſpirituous liquors, of which they are exceſſively fond. But as liberty is the ruling paſſion of the Indians, we may naturally ſuppoſe that as the Europeans advance, the former will retreat to more diſtant regions.

Quebec, the capital, not only of this province, but of all Canada, is ſituated at the confluence of the rivers St. Laurence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the ſea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble, and partly of ſlate. The town is divided into an upper and a lower; the houſes in both are of ſtone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are ſtrong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor reſides. The number of inhabitants have been computed at 12 or 15,000. The river, which from the ſea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all on a ſudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies oppoſite the town is ſafe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour

* In 1784, general Haldimand ordered a cenſus of the inhabitants to be taken, when they amounted to 113,012 Engliſh and French, excluſive of 10,000 loyaliſts, ſettled in the upper parts of the province.

is flanked by two bastions, that are raised 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Laurence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way; several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, show themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richelieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood in the summer-months.

The town called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Laurence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, come here and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides of the rivers.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St. Laurence, which is ten leagues in length and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island was become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and when it fell into the hands of the English, the houses were built in a very handsome manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southermost side of the river, as the hill on the side of which the town stands falls gradually to the water. This place is surrounded with a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec; but since it fell into the hands of the English it has suffered much by fires.

Government.] Before the late war, the French lived in affluence, being free from all taxes, and having full liberty to hunt, fish, fell timber, and to sow and plant as much land as they could cultivate. By the capitulation granted to the French, when this country was reduced, both individuals and communities were entitled to all their former rights and privileges.

In the year 1774, an act was passed by the parliament of Great Britain, for making more effectual provision for the government of the province of Quebec. By this it was enacted, that it should be lawful for his majesty, his heirs, and successors, by warrant under his or their signet or sign manual, and with the advice of the privy-council, to constitute and appoint a council for the affairs of the province of Quebec, to consist of such persons resident there, not exceeding twenty-three, nor less than seventeen, as his majesty, his heirs, and successors, shall be pleased to appoint; and upon the death, removal, or absence of any of the members of the said council, in like manner to constitute and appoint others to succeed them. And this council, so appointed and nominated, or the majority of them, are vested with power and authority to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province, with the consent of the governor, or, in his absence, of the lieutenant-governor, or commander in chief for the time being. The council, however, are not empowered to lay taxes, except for the purpose of making roads, reparation of public buildings, or such local conveniences. By this act, all matters of controversy relative to property and civil rights are to be determined by the French laws of Canada; but the criminal law of England is to be continued in the province. The inhabitants of Canada are also allowed by this act not only to profess the Romish religion, but the Popish clergy are invested with a right to claim and obtain their accustomed dues from those of the same religion. This act occasioned a great alarm both in England and America, and appears to have contributed much towards spreading a spirit of disaffection to the British government in the colonies. The city of London petitioned against the bill before it received the royal assent; declaring, that they apprehended it to be entirely subversive of the great fundamental principles of the British constitution, as well as of the authority of various solemn acts of the legislature. And in one of the petitions of the American congress to the king, they complained, that by the Quebec act, the limits of that province were extended, the English laws abolished, and the French laws restored, whereby great numbers of British freemen were subjected to the latter; and that an absolute government, and the Roman catholic religion, were also established by that act, throughout those vast regions that border on the westerly and northerly boundaries of the Protestant English settlements.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.] The nature of the climate, severely cold in winter, and the people manufacturing nothing, shows what Canada principally wants from Europe; wine, or rather rum, cloths, chiefly coarse linen, and wrought iron. The Indian trade requires rum, tobacco, a sort of duffil blankets, guns, powder, balls, and flints, kettles, hatchets, toys, and trinkets of all kinds.

While this country was possessed by the French, the Indians supplied them with peltry; and the French had traders, who, in the manner of the original inhabitants, traversed the vast lakes and rivers in canoes, with incredible industry and patience, carrying their goods into the remotest parts of America, and amongst nations entirely unknown to us. These again brought the market home to them, as the Indians were thereby habituated to trade with them. For this purpose, people from all parts, even from the distance of 1000 miles, came to the French fair at Montreal, which began in June, and sometimes lasted three months. On this occasion, many solemnities were observed, guards were placed, and the governors assisted, to preserve order, in such a concourse, and so great a variety of savage nations. But sometimes great disorder and tumults happened; and the Indians, being so fond of brandy, frequently gave for a dram all that they were possessed of. It is remarkable that many of these nations actually passed by our settlement of Albany, in New York, and travelled 250 miles farther, to Montreal, though they might have purchased the goods cheaper at the former. So much did the French exceed us in the arts of winning the affections of these savages!

Since we became possessed of Canada, our trade with that country has been computed to employ about 60 ships, and 1000 seamen. Their exports, at an average of three years, in skins, furs, ginseng, snake-root, capillaire, and wheat, amount to 105,500l. Their imports from Great Britain, in a variety of articles, are computed at nearly the same sum. It is unnecessary to make any remarks on the value and importance of this trade, which not only supplies us with unmanufactured materials, indispensably necessary in many articles of our commerce, but also takes in exchange

change the manufactures of our own country, or the production of our other settlements in the East and West Indies*.

But whatever attention be paid to the trade and peopling of Canada, it will be hardly possible to overcome certain inconveniences, proceeding from natural causes; I mean the severity of the winter, which is so excessive from December to April, that the greatest rivers are frozen over; and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet deep on the ground, even in those parts of the country which lie three degrees south of London, and in the temperate latitude of Paris. Another inconvenience arises from the falls in the river St. Laurence, below Montreal, which render it difficult for very large ships to penetrate to that emporium of inland commerce; but vessels from 300 to 400 tons are not prevented by these falls from going there annually.

HISTORY.] See the general account of America.

NOVA SCOTIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	350	between	43 and 49 north latitude	57,000
Breadth	250		60 and 67 west longitude	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the river St. Laurence on the North; by the Gulf of St. Laurence, and the Atlantic Ocean, East; by the same ocean, South; and by Canada and New England, West. In the year 1784, this province was divided into *two governments*: the province and government now styled NEW BRUNSWICK, is bounded on the westward of the river St. Croix, by the said river to its source, and by a line drawn due north from thence to the southern boundary of the province of Quebec, to the northward by the same boundary as far as the western extremity of the Bay de Chaleurs, to the eastward by the said bay to the Gulf of St. Laurence to the bay called Bay Verte, to the south by a line in the centre of the Bay of Fundy, from the river St. Croix aforesaid, to the mouth of the Musquat River, by the said river to its source, and from thence by a due line across the isthmus into the Bay Verte, to join the eastern lot above described, including all islands within six leagues of the coast.

RIVERS.] The river of St. Laurence forms the northern boundary. The rivers Risgouche and Nipisiguit run from West to East, and fall into the Bay of St. Lawrence. The rivers of St. John, Passamagnadi, Penobscot, and St. Croix, which run from North to South, fall into Fundy Bay, or the sea a little to the eastward of it.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The seas adjoining to it are, the Atlantic Ocean, Fundy Bay, and the Gulf of St. Laurence. The lesser bays are Chenigto and Green Bay upon the isthmus, which joins the north part of Nova Scotia to the south; and the bay of Chaleurs on the north-east; the bay of Chedibucto on the south-east: the bay of the islands, the ports of

* The amount of the exports from this province in the year 1786, was £.343,263. Amount of imports the same year was £.325,116.

Bart, Chebucto, Prosper, St. Margaret, La Heve, port Maltois, port Rossignol, port Vert, and port Joly, on the south; port La Tour, on the south-east; port St. Mary, Annapolis, and Minas, on the south side of Fundy Bay, and port Roseway, now the most populous of all.

The chief capes are, Cape Portage, Ecoumenac, Tourmentin, Cape Port, and Epis, on the east. Cape Fogeri, and Cape Canceau, on the south-east. Cape Blanco, Cape Vert, Cape Theodore, Cape Dore, Cape La Heve, and Cape Negro, on the south. Cape Sable and Cape Fourche on the south-west.

LAKES.] The Lakes are very numerous, but have not yet received particular names.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this country, though within the temperate zone, has been found rather unfavourable to European constitutions. They are wrapped up in the gloom of a fog during great part of the year, and for four or five months it is intensely cold; but though the cold in winter and the heat in summer are great, they come on gradually, so as to prepare the body for enduring both.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] From such an unfavourable climate little can be expected. Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, till lately, was almost a continued forest; and agriculture, though attempted by the English settlers, made little progress. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a shrivelled kind, like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spungy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in the peninsula to the southward, which do not yield to the best land in New England; and by the industry and exertions of the loyalists from the other provinces, are now cultivated, and likely to be fertile and flourishing. In general, the soil is adapted to the produce of hemp and flax. The timber is extremely proper for ship-building, and produces pitch and tar. Flattering accounts have been given of the improvements making in the new settlements and Bay of Fundy. A great quantity of land has been cleared, which abounds in timber; and ship-loads of good masts and spars have been shipped from thence already.

ANIMALS.] This country is not deficient in the animal productions of the neighbouring provinces, particularly deer, beavers, and otters. Wild fowl and all manner of game, and many kind of European fowls and quadrupeds have, from time to time, been brought into it, and thrive well. At the close of March, the fish begin to spawn, when they enter the rivers in such shoals, as are incredible. Herrings come up in April, and the sturgeon and salmon in May. But the most valuable appendage of New Scotland, is the cape Sable coast, along which is one continued range of cod fishing-banks, navigable rivers, basons, and excellent harbours.

HISTORY, SETTLEMENT, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE,} Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by James I to his secretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then, it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation, backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English, till the peace of Utretch, and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have so much arisen from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy our other settlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were transported, in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country. The town they erected is called Halifax from the Earl of that name, to whose wisdom and care we owe this settlement. The town of Halifax stands upon Chebucto Bay, very commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with most parts of the province, either by land carriage, the sea, or navigable rivers, with a fine harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war lies during the winter, and in summer puts to sea, under the command of a commodore, for the protection of the fishery, and to see that the articles of the late peace relative thereto are duly observed by the French. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. The other towns of less note are Annapolis Royal, which stands on the east side of the Bay of Fundy, and though but a small place, was formerly the capital of the province. It has one of the finest harbours in America, capable of containing a thousand vessels at anchor, in the utmost security. St. John's is a new settlement at the mouth of the river of that name, that falls into the Bay of Fundy, on the west side.

Since the conclusion of the war, the emigration of loyalists to this province from the United States, has been very great: by them new towns have been raised, as Shelburne, which extends two miles on the waterside, and is said to contain already 9000 inhabitants. Of the old settlements, the most flourishing and populous are Halifax and the townships of Windsor, Norton, and Cornwallis, between Halifax, and Annapolis. Of the new settlements, the most important are Shelburne, Parr-town, Digby and New Edinburgh. Large tracts of land have been lately cultivated and the province is now likely to advance in population and fertility.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

OF the rise, progress, and most remarkable events of that war, between Great Britain and her American colonies, which at length terminated in the establishment of the United States of America, we have already given an account in our view of the principal transactions in the history of Great Britain. It was on the fourth of July, 1776, that the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name and by the authority of the inhabitants of the United colonies of New Hampshire, Massachussett's Bay, Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, Free and Independant States; and that, as such, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independant states may of right do. They also published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of "The United States of America;" and by which each of the colonies contracted a reciprocal treaty of alliance and friendship, for their common defence, for the maintenace of their liberties, and for their general and mutual advantage; obliging themselves to assist each other against all violence that might threaten all or any one of them, and to repel in common all the attacks that might be levelled against all or any one of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or under any other pretext whatsoever. Each of the colonies reserved to themselves alone the exclusive right of regulating their internal government, and of framing laws in all matters not included in the articles of confederation. But for the more convenient management of the general interest of the United States, it was determined, that delegates should be annually appointed, in such manner as the legislature of each state should direct, to meet in congress on the first Monday in November of every year, with a power reserved to each state to recal its delegates, or any of them at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead, for the remainder of the year. No state is to be represented in congress by less than two, nor more than seven members; and no person is capable of being a delegate for more than three years, in any term of six years; nor is any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, shall receive any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining questions in the United States, in congress assembled, each state is to have one vote. Every state is to abide by the determination of the United States in congress assembled, on all questions which are submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of the confederation are to be inviolably observed by every state, and the union is to be perpetual; nor is any alteration at any time hereafter, to be made in any of them, unless such alteration be agreed to in a congress of the United States, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislatures of every state. It was on the 30th of January, 1778, that the French king concluded a treaty of amity and commerce with the thirteen United Colonies of America, as independant states. Holland acknowledged them as such April 19, 1782; and, on the 30th of November, 1782, provisional articles were signed at Paris, by the British and American commissioners, in which his Britannic majesty acknowledged the Thirteen Colonies to be Free, Sovereign, and Independent States; and these articles were afterwards ratified by a definitive treaty. Sweden acknowledged them as such, February 5, 1783; Denmark the 25th of February; Spain in March, and Russia in July, 1783.

The following calculations were made from actual measurement of the best maps, by THOMAS HUTCHINS, Esq. *Geographer to the United States.*

The territory of the United States (as before mentioned) contains, by computation, a million of square miles, in which are - -	640,000,000 of acres.
Deduct for water - - - - - -	51,000,000
Acres of Land in the United States - -	589,000,000

That part of the United States comprehended between the west temporary line of Pennsylvania on the east, the boundary line between Britain and the United States, extending from the river St. Croix to the north-west extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the north, the river Mississippi to the mouth of the Ohio on the west, and the river Ohio on the south, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennsylvania, contains, by computation, about four hundred and eleven thousand square miles; in which are

	263,040,000 of acres.
Deduct for water - - - - - -	43,040,000
To be disposed of by order of congress -	220,000,000

The

The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western territory, containing, as above stated, 220,000,000 of acres, has been, by the cession of some of the original thirteen states, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the fœderal government, and is pledged as a fund for sinking the continental debt. It is in contemplation to divide it into new states, with republican constitutions, similar to the old states near the Atlantic Ocean:

Estimate of the number of acres of water, north and westward of the river Ohio, within the territory of the United States.

	Acres.
In Lake Superior	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c.	165,200
Red Lake	551,000
Lake Michigan	10,368,000
Bay Puan	1,216,000
Lake Huron	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair	89,500
Lake Erie, western part,	2,252,800
Sundry small lakes and rivers	301,000
	43,040,000

Estimates of the number of acres of water within the Thirteen United States.

	Acres.	
In Lake Erie, westward of the line extended from the north-west corner of Pennsylvania, due north, to the boundary between the British territory and the United States	410,000	
In Lake Ontario	2,390,000	
Lake Champlain	500,000	
Chesapeak Bay	1,700,000	
Albemarle Bay	330,000	
Delaware Bay	630,000	
All the rivers within the Thirteen States, including the Ohio,	2,000,000	
		7,960,000
Total		51,000,000

NEW ENGLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	350	between	41 and 46 north latitude	87,000
Breadth	140		67 and 74 west longitude	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED on the North by Canada, on the East by Nova Scotia and the Atlantic Ocean; on the

South by the Atlantic and Long-Iſland Sound; and on the Weſt by New York *.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
The northern diviſion, or government.	New Hampſhire —	Portſmouth.
The middle diviſion	Maſſachuſett's Colony	Boston, N. lat. 42-25. W. long. 70-37.
The ſouth diviſion	Rhode Iſland, &c.	Newport.
The weſt diviſion	Connecticut —	New London. Hertford.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, &c.] New England is a high, hilly, and in ſome parts a mountainous country. The mountains are comparatively ſmall, running nearly north and ſouth, in ridges parallel to each other. Between theſe ridges flow the great rivers in majeſtic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger ſtreams which proceed from the mountains on each ſide. To a ſpectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a ſtate of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They ſeem an ocean of woods, ſwelled and depreſſed in its ſurface, like that of the great ocean itſelf.

There are four principal ranges of mountains, paſſing nearly from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt, through New England. They conſiſt of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many ſpurs, deviating from the courſe of the general range: which ſpurs are again broken into irregular hilly land. The main ridges terminate, ſometimes in high bluff heads, near the ſea-coaſt; and ſometimes by a gradual deſcent in the interior parts of the country. Theſe ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and ſprings of water, that give riſe to numberleſs ſtreams of various ſizes. No country on the globe is better watered than New England †.

RIVERS.] Their rivers are, 1. Connecticut; 2. Thames; 3. Patuxent; 4. Merimac; 5. Piſcataway; 6. Saco; 7. Caſco; 8. Kennebeque; and, 9. Penobſcot, or Pentagonet.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The moſt remarkable bays and harbours are thoſe formed by Plymouth, Rhode Iſland, and Providence Plantations; Monument Bay; Weſt Harbour, formed by the bending of Cape Cod; Boſton Harbour; Piſcataway; and Caſco Bay.

The chief capes are, Cape Cod, Marble Head, Cape Anne, Cape Netic, Cape Porpus, Cape Elizabeth, and Cape Small Point.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] New England, though ſituated almoſt ten degrees nearer the ſun than the mother country, has an earlier winter, which continues longer, and is more ſevere than with us. The ſummer again is extremely hot, and much beyond any thing known in Europe, in the ſame latitude. The clear and ſerene temperature of the ſky, however, makes amends for the extremity of heat and cold, and renders the climate of this country ſo healthy, that it is reported to agree better with Britiſh conſtitutions, than any other of the American provinces. The winds are very boiſterous in the winter ſeaſon, and naturaliſts aſcribe the early approach, and the length and ſeverity of the winter, to the large freſh water lakes lying to the north-weſt of New England, which being frozen over

* Morſe's American Geography.
† Morſe.

ſeveral months, occaſion thoſe piercing winds which prove ſo fatal to mariners on this coaſt.

The ſun riſes at Boſton, on the longeſt day, at 26 minutes after four in the morning, and ſets at 34 minutes after ſeven in the evening, and on the ſhorteſt day, it riſes at 35 minutes after ſeven in the morning, ſets at 27 minutes after four in the afternoon: thus their longeſt day is about fifteen hours, and the ſhorteſt about nine.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] We have already obſerved, that the lands lying on the eaſtern ſhore of America are low, and in ſome parts ſwampy, but farther back they riſe into hills. In New England, towards the north-eaſt, the lands become rocky and mountainous. The ſoil here is various, but beſt as you approach the ſouthward. Round Maſſachuſett's Bay the ſoil is black, and rich as in any part of England; and here the firſt planters found the graſs above a yard high. The uplands are leſs fruitful, being for the moſt part a mixture of ſand and gravel, inclining to clay. The low grounds abound in meadows and paſture land. The European grains have not been cultivated here with much ſucceſs; the wheat is ſubject to be blaſted; the barley is a hungry grain, and the oats are lean and chaffy. But the Indian corn flouriſhes in high perfection, and makes the general food of the lower ſort of people. They have likewiſe malt, and brew it into a beer, which is not contemptible. However, the common table drink is cyder and ſpruce beer: the latter is made of the tops of the ſpruce fir, with the addition of a ſmall quantity of molaſſes. They likewiſe raiſe in New England a large quantity of hemp and flax. The fruits of Old England come to great perfection here, particularly peaches and apples. Seven or eight hundred fine peaches may be found on one tree, and a ſingle apple-tree has produced ſeven barrels of cyder in one ſeaſon.

But New England is chiefly diſtinguiſhed for the variety and value of its timber, as oak, aſh, pine, fir, cedar, elm, cypreſs, beech, walnut, cheſnut, hazel, ſaſſafras, ſumach, and other woods uſed in dying or tanning leather, carpenters' work, and ſhip building. The oaks here are ſaid to be inferior thoſe of England; but the firs are of an amazing bulk, and formerly furniſhed the royal navy of England with maſts and yards. They draw from their trees conſiderable quantities of pitch, tar, reſin, turpentine, gums, and balm; and the ſoil produces hemp and flax. A ſhip may here be built and rigged out with the produce of their foreſts, and indeed ſhip-building forms a conſiderable branch of their trade.

METALS.] Rich iron mines, of a moſt excellent kind and temper, have been diſcovered in New England, which, if improved, may become very beneficial to the inhabitants.

ANIMALS.] The animals of this country furniſh many articles of New England commerce. All kinds of European cattle thrive here, and multiply exceedingly; the horſes of New England are hardy, mettleſome, and ſerviceable, but ſmaller than our's, though larger than the Welch. They have few ſheep; and the wool, though of a ſtaple ſufficiently long, is not nearly ſo fine as that of England. Here are alſo elks, deer, hares, rabbits, ſquirrels, beavers, otters, monkeys, minxs, martens, racoons, ſabbs, bears, wolves, which are only a kind of wild dogs, foxes, ounces, and a variety of other tame and wild quadrupeds. But one of the moſt ſingular animals, of this and the neighbouring countries, is the moſe or mooſe deer, of which there are two ſorts; the common light grey mooſe, which reſembles the ordinary deer; theſe herd ſometimes thirty together: and the larger black mooſe, whoſe body is about the ſize of a bull; his neck reſembles a ſtag's, and his fleſh is extremely grateful. The horns, when full grown, are about four or five feet from the head to the tip and have shoots or branches to each horn, which generally spread about six feet. When this animal goes through a thicket, or under the boughs of a tree, he lays his horns back on his neck, to place them out of his way: and these prodigious horns are shed every year. This animal does not spring or rise in going, like a deer; but a large one, in his common walk, has been seen to step over a gate five feet high. When unharboured, he will run a course of twenty or thirty miles before he takes to a bay; but when chased, he generally takes to the water.

There is hardly any where greater plenty of fowls, turkeys, geese, partridges, ducks, widgeons, dappers, swans, heathcocks, herons, storks, blackbirds, all sorts of barn-door fowl, vast flights of pigeons, which come and go at certain seasons of the year, cormorants, ravens, crows, &c. The reptiles are rattle-snakes, frogs, and toads, which swarm in the uncleared parts of these countries, where, with the owls, they make a most hideou noise in the summer evenings.

The seas round New England, as well as its rivers, abound with fish, and even whales of several kinds, such as the whalebone whale, the spermaceti whale which yields ambergrise, the fin-backed whale, the scrag whale, and the bunch whale, of which they take great numbers, and send besides some ships every year to fish for whales in Greenland, and as far as Falkland Islands. A terrible creature, called the whale-killer, from 20 to 30 feet long, with strong teeth and jaws, persecutes the whale in these seas: but, afraid of his monstrous strength, they seldom attack a full grown whale, or indeed a young one, but in companies of ten or twelve. At the mouth of the river Penobscot, there is a mackarel fishery; they likewise fish for cod in the winter, which they dry in the frost.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY. } There is not one of the colonies which can be compared, in the abundance of the people, the number of considerable and trading towns, and the manufactures that are carried on in them, to New England. The most populous and flourishing parts of the mother-country, hardly make a better appearance than the cultivated parts of this province which reach about 60 miles back. There are here many gentlemen of considerable landed estates; but the great body of the people are landholders, and cultivators of the soil. The former attaches them to their country; the latter, by making them strong and healthy, enables them to defend it*. These freeholds generally pass to their children in the way of gavelkind; which keeps them from being hardly ever able to emerge out of their original happy mediocrity. In no part of the world are the ordinary sort so independent, or possess more of the conveniences of life; they are used from their infancy to the exercise of arms; and before the contest with the mother-country, they had a militia, which was by no means contemptible; but their military strength is now much more considerable.

The inhabitants of New England are almost universally of English descent; and it is owing to this circumstance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the English language has been preserved among them so free of corruption. It is true, that from laziness, inattention, and want of acquaintance with mankind, many of the people in the country have accustomed themselves to use some peculiar phrases, and to pronounce certain words in a flat, drawling manner.

* Morse's American Geography.

Hence foreigners pretend they know a New Englandman from his manner of ſpeaking. But the ſame may be ſaid with regard to a Pennſylvanian, a Virginian, a Carolinian; for all have ſome phraſes and modes of pronunciation peculiar to themſelves, which diſtinguiſh them from their neighbours.

The New Englanders are generally tall, ſtout, and well built. They glory, and perhaps with juſtice, in poſſeſſing that ſpirit of freedom, which induced their anceſtors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardſhips of ſettling in a wilderneſs. Their education, laws, and ſituation, ſerve to inſpire them with high notions of liberty.—In New England, learning is more generally diffuſed among all ranks of people, than in any other part of the globe; ariſing from the excellent eſtabliſhment of ſchools in every townſhip. A perſon of mature age, who cannot both read and write is rarely to be found. By means of this general eſtabliſhment of ſchools, the extenſive circulation of newſpapers (of which not leſs than 30,000 are printed every week in New England, and ſent to almoſt every town and village in the country) and the conſequent ſpread of learning, every townſhip, throughout this country, is furniſhed with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgment and diſcretion *.

New England, ſhould any great and ſudden emergency require it, could furniſh an army of 164,600 men †. The inhabitants of Maſſachuſett's Bay are eſtimated at 350,000.

Connecticut is ſaid, in proportion to its extent, to exceed every other colony of Britiſh America, as well in the abundance of people as cultivation of ſoil. Its inhabitants are about 206,000. The men, in general, throughout the province, are robuſt, ſtout, and tall. The greateſt care is taken of the limbs and bodies of infants, which are kept ſtraight by means of a board; a practice learned of the Indian women, who abhor all crooked people; ſo that deformity is here a rarity. The women are fair, handſome, and genteel; and modeſt and reſerved in their manners and behaviour. They are not permitted to read plays, nor can they converſe about whiſt, quadrille, or operas; but, it is ſaid, that they will talk freely upon the ſubjects of hiſtory, geography, and other literary topics. The inhabitants of Connecticut are extremely hoſpitable to ſtrangers.

New Hampſhire, of late years, has greatly increaſed in population, ſo that in 1783, the number of inhabitants was reckoned to amount to 82,200; and of Rhode Iſland province to 50,400.

Religion.] Calviniſm, from the principles of the firſt ſettlers, has been very prevalent in New England: many of the inhabitants alſo formerly obſerved the ſabbath with a kind of Jewiſh rigour; but this hath of late been much diminiſhed. There is at preſent no eſtabliſhed religion in New England; but every ſect of Chriſtians is allowed the free exerciſe of its religion, and is equally under the protection of the law ‡. They annually celebrate faſts and thankſgivings. In the ſpring, the ſeveral governors iſſue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiouſly obſerved in faſting, humiliation, and prayer, throughout their reſpective ſtates, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harveſt, that gladſome æra of the huſbandman's life, a day of public thankſgiving is appointed, enumerating the public bleſſings received in the courſe of the year. This pious

* Morſe's American Geography. † Morſe.

‡ By a late account, there are 400 Independent and Preſbyterian churches in this province, 84 Baptiſt, and 31 of other denominations.

custom originates with their venerable anceſtors, the firſt ſettlers. A cuſtom ſo rational, and ſo well calculated to cheriſh in the minds of the people a ſenſe of their dependence on the GREAT BENEFACTOR of the world for all their bleſſings, it is hoped, will ever be ſacredly preſerved *. The Connecticut province hath lately provided a biſhop for the epiſcopalians among them, by ſending one of their number to Scotland to be ordained by the nonjuring biſhops of the epiſcopal church in that kingdom.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Boſton, the capital of New England, ſtands on a peninſula at the bottom of Maſſachuſett's Bay, about nine miles from its mouth. At the entrance of this bay are ſeveral rocks, which appear above water, and upwards of a dozen ſmall iſlands, ſome of which are inhabited. There is but one ſafe channel to approach the harbour, and that ſo narrow, that two ſhips can ſcarcely ſail through abreaſt; but within the harbour there is room for 500 ſail to lie at anchor, in a good depth of water. On one of the iſlands of the bay, ſtands Fort William, the moſt regular fortreſs in all the plantations. This caſtle is defended by 100 guns, twenty of which lie on a platform level with the water, ſo that it is ſcarcely poſſible for an enemy to paſs the caſtle. To prevent ſurpriſe, they have a guard placed on one of the rocks, at two leagues diſtance, from whence they make ſignals to the caſtle when any ſhips come near it. There is alſo a battery of guns at each end of the town. At the bottom of the bay is a noble pier, near 2000 feet in length; along which, on the north ſide, extends a row of warehouſes for the merchants, and to this pier ſhips of the greateſt burthen may come and unload, without the help of boats. The greateſt part of the town lies round the harbour, in the ſhape of a half moon; the country beyond it riſing gradually, and affording a delightful proſpect from the ſea. The head of the pier joins the principal ſtreet of the town, which is, like moſt of the others, ſpacious and well built. The trade of Boſton was ſo conſiderable in the year 1768, that 1200 ſail entered or cleared at the cuſtom-houſe there.

Cambridge, in the ſame province, four miles from Boſton, has an univerſity, containing two ſpacious colleges, called by the names of Havard College, and Stoughton Hall, with a well-furniſhed library. It conſiſts of a preſident, five fellows, a treaſurer, three profeſſors, four tutors, and a librarian. The college charter was firſt granted in 1650, and renewed in 1692, and is held under the colony ſeal.

The other towns in New England, the chief of which have already been mentioned, are generally neat, well built, and commodiouſly ſituated upon fine rivers, with capacious harbours.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] New England has no one ſtaple commodity. The ocean and the foreſts afford the two principal articles of export; and therefore the trade is great, as it ſupplies a large quantity of goods from within itſelf; but it is yet greater, as the people in this country are in a manner the carriers for all the colonies of North America, and to the Weſt Indies, and even for ſome parts of Europe. The commodities which the country yields are principally pig and bar iron, which were imported to Great Britain duty free: alſo maſts and yards, pitch, tar, and turpentine, for which they contracted largely with the royal navy; pot and pearl-aſhes, ſtaves, lumber, boards; all ſorts of proviſions, which they ſent to the French and Dutch ſugar iſlands, and formerly to Barbadoes, and the other Britiſh iſles, as grain, biſcuit, meal, beef, pork, butter, cheeſe, apples, cyder, onions, mackarel, and cod-fiſh dried. They like-

* Morſe's American Geography.

wiſe ſent thither cattle, horſes, planks, hoops, ſhingles, pipe-ſtaves, oil, tallow, turpentine, bark, calf-ſkins, and tobacco. Their peltry trade is not very conſiderable. They have a moſt valuable fiſhery upon their coaſts in mackarel and cod, which employs vaſt numbers of their people; with the produce of which they trade to Spain, Italy, the Mediterranean, and the Weſt Indies, to a conſiderable amount. Their whale fiſhery has been already mentioned. The arts moſt neceſſary to ſubſiſtence are thoſe which the inhabitants of New England have been at the greateſt pains to cultivate. They manufacture coarſe linen and woollen cloth for their own uſe; hats are made here, which find a good vent in all the other colonies. Sugar-baking, diſtilling, paper-making, and ſalt-works, are upon the improving hand. The buſineſs of ſhip-building is one of the moſt conſiderable which Boſton, Newbury, or the other ſea-port towns in New England carry on. Ships are ſometimes built here upon commiſſion; but frequently the merchants of New England have them conſtructed upon their own account; and loading them with the produce of the colony, naval ſtores, fiſh, and fiſh-oil principally, they ſend them upon a trading voyage to Spain, Portugal, or the Mediterranean; where, having diſpoſed of their cargo, they make what advantage they can by freight, until ſuch time as they can ſell the veſſel herſelf to advantage, which they ſeldom fail to do in a reaſonable time.

It was computed, that, before the late unhappy differences aroſe, the amount of Engliſh manufactures, and India goods ſent into this colony from Great Britain, was not leſs, at an average of three years, than 395,000l. Our imports from the ſame were calculated at 370,500l.

History and Government.] New England is at preſent divided into the four provinces of New Hampſhire, Maſſachuſett's, Rhode Iſland, and Connecticut. As early as 1606, King James I had by letters patent erected two companies, with a power to ſend colonies into thoſe parts, then comprehended under the general name of Virginia, as all the north-eaſt coaſt of America was ſometimes called. No ſettlements, however, were made in New England by virtue of this authority. The companies contented themſelves with ſending out a ſhip or two, to trade with the Indians for their furs, and to fiſh upon their coaſt. This continued to be the only ſort of correſpondence between Great Britain and this part of America, till the year 1620. By this time the religious diſſentions, by which England was torn to pieces, had become warm and furious. Archbiſhop Laud perſecuted all ſorts of non-conformiſts with an unrelenting ſeverity. Thoſe men, on the other hand, were ready to ſubmit to all the rigour of perſecution rather than give up their religious opinions, and conform to the ceremonies of the church of England, which they conſidered as abuſes of the moſt dangerous tendency. There was no part of the world into which they would not fly, in order to obtain liberty of conſcience. America opened an extenſive field. There they might tranſport themſelves, and eſtabliſh whatever ſort of religious policy they were inclined to. With this view, having purchaſed the territory, which was within the juriſdiction of the Plymouth Company, and having obtained from the king the privilege of ſettling it in whatever way they had a mind, 150 perſons embarked for New England, and built a city, which becauſe they had failed from Plymouth, they called by that name. Notwithſtanding the ſeverity of the climate, the unwholeſomeneſs of the air, and the diſeaſes to which, after a long ſea voyage, and in a country which was new to them, they were expoſed; notwithſtanding the want of all ſorts of conveniencies, and even of many of the neceſſaries of life, thoſe who had conſtitutions fit to endure ſuch hardſhips, not diſpirited or broken by the death of their companions, and supported by the vigour then peculiar to Engliſhmen, and the ſatisfaction of finding themſelves beyond the reach of the ſpiritual arm, ſet themſelves to cultivate this country, and to take the beſt ſteps for the advancement of their infant colony. New adventurers, encouraged by their exemple, and finding themſelves, for the ſame reaſons, uneaſy at home, paſſed over into this land of religious and civil liberty. By the cloſe of the year 1630, they had built four towns, Salem, Dorcheſter, Charles-town, and Boſton, which laſt has ſince become the capital of New England. But as neceſſity is the natural ſource of that active and frugal induſtry which produces every thing great among mankind, ſo an uninterrupted flow of proſperity and ſucceſs occaſions thoſe diſſenſions which are the bane of human affairs, and often ſubvert the beſt founded eſtabliſhments.

The inhabitants of New England, who had fled from perſecution, became in a ſhort time ſtrongly tainted with this illiberal vice, and were eager to introduce an uniformity in religion among all who entered their territories. The minds of men were not in that age ſuperior to many prejudices. They had not that open and generous way of thinking which at preſent diſtinguiſhes the natives of Great Britain; and the doctrine of univerſal toleration, which, to the honour of the firſt ſettlers in America, began to appear among them, had few abettors, and many opponents. Many of them were bigoted Calviniſts; and though they had felt the weight of perſecution themſelves, they had no charity for thoſe who profeſſed ſentiments different from their own. It was not the general idea of the age, that men might live comfortably together in the ſame ſociety, without maintaining the ſame religious opinions; and wherever theſe were at variance, the members of different ſects kept at a diſtance from each other, and eſtabliſhed ſeparate governments. Hence ſeveral ſlips, torn from the original government of New England by religious violence, planted themſelves in a new ſoil, and ſpread over the country. Such was that of New Hampſhire, which continues to this day a ſeparate juriſdiction; ſuch too was that of Rhode Iſland, whoſe inhabitants were driven out from the Maſſachuſett colony (for that is the name by which the government firſt erected in New England was diſtinguiſhed) for ſupporting the freedom of religious ſentiments, and maintaining that the civil magiſtrate had no right over the ſpeculative opinions of mankind. Theſe liberal men founded a city, called Providence, which they governed by their own principles; and ſuch is the connection between juſtneſs of ſentiment and external proſperity, that the government of Rhode Iſland, though ſmall, became extremely populous and flouriſhing. Another colony, driven out by the ſame perſecuting ſpirit, ſettled on the river Connecticut, and received frequent reinforcements from England, of ſuch as were diſſatisfied either with the religious or civil government of that country.

America indeed was now become the main reſource of all diſcontented and enterpriſing ſpirits; and ſuch were the numbers which embarked for it from England, that in 1637, a proclamation was publiſhed, prohibiting any perſon from ſailing thither, without an expreſs licence from the government. For want of this licence, it is ſaid, that Oliver Cromwell, Mr. Hampden, and others of the party, were detained from going into New England, after being on ſhip-board for that purpoſe.

Theſe four provinces, though always confederates for their mutual defence, were at firſt, and ſtill continue, under ſeparate juriſdictions. They were all of them, by their charters, originally free, and in a great meaſure independent of Great Britain. The inhabitants had the choice of their own magiſtrates, the governor, the council, the aſſembly, and the power of making ſuch laws as they thought proper, without ſending them to Great Britain for the approbation of the crown. Their laws, however, were not to be oppoſite to thoſe of Great Britain. Towards the latter end of the reign of Charles II, when he and his miniſters wanted to deſtroy all charters and liberties, the Maſſachuſett's colony was accuſed of violating their charter, in like manner as the city of London, and by a judgment in the King's Bench of England was deprived of it. From that time to the revolution, they remained without any charter. Soon after that period, they received a new one, which, though very favourable, was much inferior to the extenſive privileges of the former. The appointment of a governor, lieutenant-governor, ſecretary, and all the officers of the admiralty, was veſted in the crown; the power of the militia was wholly in the hands of the governor, as captain-general; all judges, juſtices, and ſheriffs, to whom the execution of the law was entruſted, were nominated by the governor, with the advice of the council: the governor had a negative on the choice of counſellors, peremptory and unlimited; and he was not obliged to give a reaſon for what he did in this particular, or reſtrained to any number: authentic copies of the ſeveral acts paſſed by this colony, as well as others, were to be tranſmitted to the court of England, for the royal approbation; but if the laws of this colony were not repealed within three years after they were preſented, they were not repealable by the crown after that time; no laws, ordinances, election of magiſtrates, or acts of government whatſoever, were valid without the governor's conſent in writing; and appeals for ſums above 300l. were admitted to the king and council. Notwithſtanding theſe reſtraints, the people had ſtill a great ſhare of power in this colony; for they not only choſe the aſſembly, but this aſſembly, with the governor's concurrence, choſe the council, reſembling our houſe of lords; and the governor depended upon the aſſembly for his annual ſupport.

But the government of New England has been entirely changed, in conſequence of the revolt of the colonies from the authority of Great Britain; of the origin and progreſs of which an account has been given in another place. It was on the 25th of July, 1776, that, by an order from the council at Boſton, the declaration of the American Congreſs, abſolving the United Colonies from their allegiance to the Britiſh crown, and declaring them free and independent, was publicly proclaimed from the balcony of the ſtate-houſe in that town.

A conſtitution, or form of government, for the commonwealth of Maſſachuſett's, including a declaration of rights, was agreed to, and eſtabliſhed by the inhabitants of that province, and took place in October, 1780. In the preamble to this it was declared, that the end of the inſtitution, maintenance, and adminiſtration of government, is to ſecure the exiſtence of the body politic: to protect it, and to furniſh the individuals who compoſe it, with the power of enjoying, in ſafety and tranquillity, their natural rights, and the bleſſings of life; and that whenever theſe great objects are not obtained, the people have a right to alter the government, and to take meaſures neceſſary for their proſperity and happineſs. They expreſſed their gratitude to the Great Legiſlator of the univerſe, for having afforded them, in the courſe of his providence, an opportunity, deliberately and peaceably, without fraud, violence, or ſurpriſe, of entering into an original, explicit, and ſolemn compact with each other; and of forming a new conſtitution of civil government for themſelves and their poſterity. They declared that it was the right, as well as the duty, of all men in ſociety, publicly, and at ſtated ſeaſons, to worſhip the Supreme

preme Being; and that no ſubject ſhould be hurt, moleſted, or reſtrained in his perſon, liberty, or eſtate, for worſhipping God in the manner and ſeaſon moſt agreeable to the dictates of his own conſcience; or for his religious profeſſion or ſentiments: provided he did not diſturb the public peace, or obſtruct others in their religious worſhip.

It was alſo enacted, that the ſeveral towns, pariſhes, precincts, and other bodies politic, or religious ſocieties, ſhould at all times, have the excluſive right of electing their public teachers, and of contracting with them for their ſupport and maintenance. That all monies paid by the ſubject to the ſupport of public worſhip, and of the public teachers, ſhould, if he required it, be uniformly applied to the ſupport of the public teacher or teachers of his own religious ſect or denomination, provided there were any on whoſe inſtructions he attended; otherwiſe it might be paid towards the ſupport of the teacher or teachers of the pariſh or precinct in which the ſaid monies ſhould be raiſed. That every denomination of Chriſtians, demeaning themſelves peaceably, and as good ſubjects of the commonwealth, ſhould be equally under the protection of the law; and that no ſubordination of any ſect or denomination to another ſhould ever be eſtabliſhed by law.

It was likewiſe declared, that as all power reſided originally in the people, and was derived from them, the ſeveral magiſtrates and officers of government, veſted with authority, whether legiſlative, executive, or judicial, are their ſubſtitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them. That no ſubject ſhould be arreſted, impriſoned, deſpoiled, or deprived of his property, immunities, or privileges, put out of the protection of the law, exiled, or deprived of his life, liberty, or eſtate, but by the judgment of his peers, or the law of the land. That the legiſlature ſhould not make any law that ſhould ſubject any perſon to a capital or infamous puniſhment, excepting for the government of the army or navy, without trial by jury. That the liberty of the preſs is eſſential to the ſecurity of freedom in a ſtate; and that it ought not, therefore, to be reſtrained in that commonwealth. That the people have a right to keep, and bear arms, for the common defence; but that as in times of peace armies are dangerous to liberty, they ought not to be maintained without the conſent of the legiſlature; and that the military power ſhould always be held in an exact ſubordination to the civil authority, and be governed by it.

It was likewiſe enacted, that the department of legiſlation ſhould be formed by two branches, a ſenate, and a houſe of repreſentatives; each of which ſhould have a negative on the other. That the ſenators, conſiſting of forty, and the members of the houſe of repreſentatives, ſhould be elected annually; and that every male perſon, being twenty-one years of age, or upwards, who had reſided in any particular town in the commonwealth, for the ſpace of one year, and having a freehold eſtate within the ſaid town, of the annual income of three pounds, or any eſtate of the value of ſixty pounds, ſhould have a right to vote for ſenators and repreſentatives of the diſtrict of which he was an inhabitant. And that there ſhould be a ſupreme executive magiſtrate, who ſhould be ſtyled the governor of the commonwealth of Maſſachuſett, and alſo a lieutenant-governor, both of whom ſhould be choſen annually by the whole body of electors in the commonwealth, and aſſiſted by nine counſellors, choſen by ballot, out of the ſenate. The ſecretary, treaſurer, receiver-general, notories public, and naval officers, to be choſen annually by the ſenators and repreſentatives. The judiciary power to be ſeptennial, and the delegates to congreſs ſhall be annually elected by and out of the ſenate and house of representatives, or general court. The governor has a negative on bills sent to him for assent from the general court, but has no control in their choice of officers.

The state of Rhode Island admits their original charter as the rule of their government. New Hampshire and Connecticut have not yet finally established their forms of government, but have chiefly adopted that of Massachusett's Bay.

It is worthy of notice, that since the commencement of the war between Great Britain and the colonies, and even while the war was carried on, with great animosity on both sides, an act was passed, on the 4th of May, 1780, by the council and house of representatives of Massachusett's Bay, for incorporating and establishing a society for the cultivation and promotion of the arts and sciences. It is entitled, "The American Academy of Arts and Sciences;" the first members were named in the act: and they were never to be more than two hundred, nor less than forty. It was declared in the act, that the end and design of the institution of the said academy, was to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country; and to determine the uses to which its various natural productions might be applied; to promote and encourage medicinal discoveries; mathematical disquisitions; philosophical inquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological, and geographical observations; and improvements in agriculture, arts, manufactures, and commerce; and, in short, to cultivate every art and science which might tend to advance the interest, honour, dignity, and happiness, of a free, independent, and virtuous people.

NEW YORK.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 50 Breadth 300	between	40 and 45 north latitude. 72 and 76 west longitude.	24,000.

Boundaries.] NEW YORK is bounded on the south and south-west by Hudson's and Delaware rivers, which divide it from New Jersey and Pennsylvania; on the east and north-east by New England and the Atlantic Ocean; and on the north-west by Canada.

This province, including the island of New York, Long Island, and Staten Island, is divided into the sixteen following counties:

Counties.	Chief Towns.	
New York — —	New York.	40-40 N. lat. 74-00 W. long.
Albany — —	Albany	
Ulster — — —	Kingston	
Duchess — —	Poughkeepsie	
Orange — — —	Orange	

Counties.

Counties.	Chief Towns.
West Chester — —	Bedford, White plains
King's — —	Flatbush, Brooklyn
Queen's — —	Jamaica
Suffolk — —	East Hampton, Huntingdon
Richmond — —	Richmond
Washington — —	Salem
* Columbia — —	Hudson, Kinderhook
* Clinton — —	Platsburg
Montgomery — —	Johnstown
† Cumberland — —	None
† Gloucester — —	None

Rivers.] The principal of these are Hudson's and the Mohawk; the former abounds with excellent harbours, and is well stored with great variety of fish: on this the cities of New-York and Albany are situated. The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is 600 miles from New York. It is navigable for sloops of 80 tons to Albany, and for ships to Hudson. About 60 miles above New York the water becomes fresh. The river is stored with a variety of fish, which renders a summer passage to Albany delightful and amusing to those who are fond of angling||. On the Mohawk is a large cataract, called the Cohoes, the water of which is said to fall 30 feet perpendicular; but, including the descent above, the fall is as much as 60 or 70 feet, where the river is a quarter of a mile in breadth.

Capes.] These are Cape May on the east entrance of Delaware river; Sandy-Hook, near the entrance of Raritan river; and Montock Point at the east end of Long Island.

Climate, soil, and produce.] This province lying to the south of New England, enjoys a more happy temperature of climate. The air is very healthy, and agrees well with all constitutions. The face of the country, resembling that of the other British American colonies, is low, flat, and marshy towards the sea. As you recede from the coast, the eye is entertained with the gradual swelling of hills, which become large in proportion as you advance into the country. The soil is extremely fertile, producing wheat, rye, Indian corn, oats, barley, flax, and fruits, in great abundance and perfection. The timber is much the same with that of New England. A great deal of iron is found here.

Cities, population, and commerce.] The city of New York stands on the south-west end of York-island, which is twelve miles long, and near three in breadth, extremely well situated for trade, at the mouth of Hudson's river, where it is three miles broad, and proves a noble conveyance from Albany, and many other inland towns towards Canada, and the lakes. This city is in length above a mile, and its mean breadth a quarter of a mile. This city and harbour, are defended by a fort and battery: in the fort is a spacious mansion-house, for the use of the governor. Many of the houses are very elegant; and the city, though irregularly built, affords a fine prospect. A fourth part of the city was burnt down by some incendiaries in 1776, on the king's troops taking it. A great part of the inhabitants are descended from the Dutch families who

* These two counties were not constituted in 1786, when the above enumeration was made, and were included in some of the other counties. See Morse.

† These counties are claimed by New York, but are within the limits and under the jurisdiction of Vermont.

|| Morse.

remained here after the surrender of the New Netherlands to the English, and the whole province, in 1786, was calculated at 238,897, of which 18,819, were blacks. The population for every square mile, including the whole state, is only five, so that this state is but a ninth part as populous as Connecticut. But it is to be considered that Connecticut has no waste lands, and not half the state of New York is settled *.

The city of Albany contains about 4000 inhabitants, collected from almost all parts of the northern world. As great a variety of languages are spoken in Albany as in any town in the United States. Adventurers in pursuit of wealth are led here by the advantages for trade which this place affords. Situated on one of the finest rivers in the world, at the head of sloop-navigation, surrounded with a rich and extensive back country, and the store-house of the trade to and from Canada and the lakes, it must flourish, and the inhabitants cannot but grow rich.

The city of Hudson, however, is their great rival, and has had the most rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore, in Maryland. It is 130 miles north of New York. It was not begun till the autumn of 1783 †.

The situation of New York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the states. It has at all seasons of the year a short and easy access to the ocean. It commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled and best cultivated parts of the United States. It has been supposed by well-informed gentlemen, that more wealth is conveyed down Connecticut river, and through the Sound to New York, than down the Hudson. This is not improbable, as the banks of the Connecticut are more fertile and much thicker, and more extensively settled than the banks of Hudson ‡. The commodities in which they trade are wheat, flour, barley, oats, beef, and other kinds of animal food. Their markets are the same with those which the New Englanders use; and they have a share in the log-wood trade, and that which is carried on with the Spanish and French plantations. They used to take almost the same sort of commodities from England with the inhabitants of Boston. At an average of three years, their exports were said to amount to 526,000l. and their imports from Great Britain to 531,000l.

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.] New York is at least half a century behind her neighbours in New England, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, in point of improvement in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reasons for this deficiency, that of want of enterprize in the inhabitants is not the least. Indeed their local advantages have been such, that they have grown rich without enterprize. Besides, lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of course large, and it requires much less ingenuity to raise 1000 bushels of wheat upon 60 acres of land, than to raise the same quantity upon 30 acres. So long, therefore, as the farmer in New York can have 60 acres of land to raise 1000 bushels of wheat, he will never trouble himself to find out how he can raise the same quantity upon half the land. It is population alone that stamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family upon a small farm, his invention is exercised to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reason why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers produce to the farmer twice as much clear profit as lands in equal quantity, and of the same quality upon the Hudson.

* Morse's American Geography. † Morse. ‡ Morse.

If the preceding obſervations be juſt, improvements will keep pace with population and the increaſing value of lands.

Improvements in manufactures never precede, but invariably follow improvements in agriculture. This obſervation applies more particularly to the country. The city of New York contains a great number of people who are employed in the various branches of manufactures, viz. wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf-ſugar, bread, beer, ſhoes and boots, ſadlery, cabinet-work, cutlery, hats, clocks, watches, mathematical and muſical inſtruments, ſhips, and every thing neceſſary for their equipment. A glaſs work, and ſeveral iron works have been eſtabliſhed *.

Religion and learning.] It is ordained by the late conſtitution of New York, that the free exerciſe and enjoyment of religious profeſſion and worſhip, without diſcrimination or preference, ſhall for ever be allowed within that ſtate to all mankind.

A college was erected at New York, by act of parliament, about the year 1755; but as the aſſembly was at that time divided into parties, it was formed on a contracted plan, and has for that reaſon never met with the encouragement which might naturally be expected for a public ſeminary in ſo populous a city.

History and government.] The Swedes and Dutch were the firſt Europeans who formed ſettlements on this part of the American coaſt. The tract claimed by the two nations extended from the 38th to the 41ſt degree of latitude, and was called the New Netherlands. It continued in their hands till the time of Charles II, who obtained it from them by right of conqueſt in 1664; and it was confirmed to the Engliſh by the treaty of Breda, 1667. The New Netherlands were not long in our poſſeſſion before they were divided into different provinces. New York took that name from the king's brother, James, Duke of York, to whom the king granted it, with full powers of government, by letters patent, dated March 20, 1664. On James's acceſſion to the throne, the right to New York became veſted in the crown, and it became a royal government. The king appointed the governor and council; and the people, once in ſeven years, elected their repreſentatives to ſerve in general aſſemblies. Theſe three branches of the legiſlature (anſwering to thoſe of Great Britain) had power to make any laws not repugnant to thoſe of England; but, in order to their being valid, the royal aſſent to them was firſt to be obtained.

By the conſtitution of the ſtate of New York, eſtabliſhed in 1777, the ſupreme legiſlative power was veſted into two ſeparate and diſtinct bodies of men; the one to be called, "The Aſſembly of the State of New York," to conſiſt of ſeventy members, annually choſen by ballot; and the other, "The Senate of the State of New York," to conſiſt of twenty-four for four years, who together are to form the legiſlature, and to meet once at leaſt, in every year, for the diſpatch of buſineſs. The ſupreme executive power is to be veſted in a governor, who is to continue in office three years, aſſiſted by four counſellors, choſen by and from the ſenate. Every male inhabitant of full age, who ſhall poſſeſs a freehold of the value of twenty pounds, or have rented a tenement of the yearly value of forty ſhillings, and been rated and have paid taxes to the ſtate for ſix months preceding the day of election, is entitled to vote for members of the aſſembly; but thoſe who vote for the governor, and the members of the ſenate, are to be poſſeſſed of freeholds of the value of one hundred pounds. The delegates to the congreſs, the judges, &c. are to be choſen by ballot of the ſenate and aſſembly.

* Morſe's American Geography.

NEW JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 160	between	39 and 43 north lat.	10,000
Breadth 60		74 and 76 west long.	

BOUNDARIES.] NEW JERSEY is bounded on the west and south-west, by Delaware river and bay; on the south-east and east, by the Atlantic Ocean; and by the Sound which separates Staten island from the continent, and Hudson's river, on the north.

Divisions.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
East Division contains	Middlesex	Perth Amboy and New Brunswick
	Monmouth	Shrewsbury and Freehold
	Essex	Elizabeth and Newark
	Somerset	Boundbrook
	Bergen	Hakkensak
West Division contains	Burlington	BURLINGTON { 40-8 N. lat. 75-0 W. long.
	Gloucester	Woodbury, and Gloucester
	Salem	Salem
	Cumberland	Hopewell, Bridgetown
	Cape Mary	None
	Hunterdon	Trenton
	Morris	Morristown
	Sussex	Newtown

RIVERS.] These are the Delaware, Raritan, and Passaick, on the latter of which is a remarkable cataract; the height of the rock from which the water falls is said to be about 70 feet perpendicular, and the river there 80 yards broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE,] The climate is much the same with that of New York; the soil is various, at least one-fourth part of the province is barren sandy land, producing pines and cedars; the other parts in general are good, and produce wheat, barley, rye, Indian corn, &c. in great perfection.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.} New Jersey is part of that vast tract of land, which, we have observed, was given by king Charles II to his brother, James, duke of York; he sold it, for a valuable consideration, to Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret (from which it received its present name, because Sir George had estates in the island of Jersey) and they again to others, who in the year 1702 made a surrender of the powers of government to queen Anne, which she accepted; after which it became a royal government. By an account published in 1765, the number of inhabitants appears to have been about 100,000: but in 1784, a census of the inhabitants was made by order of the legislature, when they amounted to 149,435, of which 10,501 were blacks. Of these blacks, 1939 only were slaves; so that the proportion of slaves to the whole of the inhabitants in

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the ſtate is as one to ſeventy-ſix. The population for every ſquare mile is eighteen*.

Perth-Amboy and Burlington were the ſeats of government; the governor generally reſided in the latter, which is pleaſantly ſituated on the fine river Delaware, within twenty miles of Philadelphia. Both have been lately made free ports for twenty-five years. The former is as good a port as moſt on the continent; and the harbour is ſafe, and capacious enough to contain many large ſhips.—In Bergen county is a very valuable copper-mine.

By the new Charter of rights, eſtabliſhed by the provincial congreſs, July 2, 1776, the government of New York is veſted in a governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly. The members of the legiſlative council are to be freeholders, and worth at leaſt one thouſand pounds real and perſonal eſtate; and the members of the general aſſembly to be worth five hundred pounds. All the inhabitants worth fifty pounds are entitled to vote for repreſentatives in council and aſſembly, and for all other public officers. The election of the governor, legiſlative council, and general aſſembly, are to be annual; the governor, and lieutenant governor to be choſen out of and by the aſſembly and council. The judges of the ſupreme court are choſen for ſeven years, and the officers of the executive power for five years.

Religion and learning.] According to the preſent conſtitution of this province, all perſons are allowed to worſhip God in the manner that is moſt agreeable to their own conſciences; nor is any perſon obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the purpoſe of building or repairing any other church or churches, for the maintenance of any miniſter or miniſtry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or has deliberately or voluntarily engaged himſelf to perform. There is to be no eſtabliſhment of any one religious ſect in this province, in preference to another: and no Proteſtant inhabitants are to be denied the enjoyment of any civil right, merely on account of their religious principles.

A college was eſtabliſhed at the town of Princeton, in this province, by governor Belcher, 1746, and has a power of conferring the ſame degrees as Oxford or Cambridge. There were generally, before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, between 80 and 100 ſtudents here, who came from all parts of the continent, ſome even from the extremities of it.

PENNSYLVANIA AND DELAWARE.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	300	between	74 and 81 weſt longitude	15,000
Breadth	240		39 and 44 north latitude	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by the country of the Iroquois, or Five Nations, on the North; by Delaware river, which divides it from the Jerſeys, on the Eaſt; and by Maryland, on the South and Weſt.

* Morſe's American Geography.

The ſtate of PENNSYLVANIA contains the following counties:

Counties.	Chief Towns.	
Philadelphia — —	PHILADELPHIA	N. lat. 40. W. long. 75-20.
Cheſter — —	Cheſter	
Bucks — —	Newtown	
Berks — —	Reading	
Northampton — —	Eaſton	
Lancaſter — —	Lancaſter	
York — — —	York	
Cumberland — —	Carliſle	
Montgomery — —	Norriſton	
Dauphin — —	Louiſburg	
Luzerne — —	Wilkſborough	
Northumberland —	Sunbury	
Franklin — —	Chamberſtown	
Huntingdon — —	Huntingdon	
Weſtmoreland — —	Greenſburg	
Fayette — —	Union	
Waſhington — —	Waſhington	
Allegany — —	Pittſburg	

Bedford, a county weſtward of the mountains upon the Ohio, purchaſed from the Indians, in 1768, by Mr. Penn, and eſtabliſhed in 1771.

The DELAWARE State is divided into three counties:

Counties.		Chief Towns.
Newcaſtle	on the Delaware	Newcaſtle, Wilmington
Kent and		Dover
Suſſex		Leweſtown, Milford

which form a diſtinct ſtate and government, having a preſident, council of nine perſons, and houſe of aſſembly of twenty-one repreſentatives; the judges and other officers of ſtate, civil and military, are choſen by the preſident and general aſſembly.

RIVERS.] The rivers are, Delaware, which is navigable for veſſels of one ſort or other, more than 200 miles above Philadelphia. The Suſquehanna and Schuylkill are alſo navigable a conſiderable way up the country, Theſe rivers, with the numerous bays and creeks in Delaware bay, capable of containing the largeſt fleets, render this province admirably ſuited to carry on an inland and foreign trade.

CLIMATE, AIR, SOIL, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The face of the country, air, ſoil, and produce, do not materially differ from thoſe of New York. If there be any difference, it is in favour of this province. The air is ſweet and clear. The winters continue from December till March, and are ſo extremely cold and ſevere, that the river Delaware, though very broad, is often frozen over. The months of July, Auguſt, and September, are almoſt intolerably hot; but the country is refreſhed by frequent cold breezes. It may be remarked, in general, that in all parts of the Britiſh plantations, from New York to the ſouthern extremity, the woods are full of wild vines of three or four ſpecies, all different from thoſe we have in Europe. But, whether from ſome fault in their nature, or in the climate, or the ſoil where they grow, or, what is much more probable, from a fault in the planters, they have yet produced no wine that deserves to be mentioned, though the Indians from them make a sort of wine, with which they regale themselves. It may also be observed of the timber of these colonies, that towards the south it is not so good for shipping as that of the more northern provinces. The farther southward you go, the timber becomes less compact, and rives easily; which property, as it renders it less serviceable for ships, makes it more useful for staves.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, SETTLEMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE. This country, under the name of the New Netherlands, was originally possessed by the Dutch and Swedes. When these nations, however, were expelled from New York by the English admiral, Penn, who, in conjunction with Venables, had conquered the island of Jamaica (under the auspices of Cromwell) being in favour with Charles II, obtained a promise of a grant of this country from that monarch. Upon the admiral's death, his son, the celebrated quaker, availed himself of this promise, and, after much court-solicitation, obtained the performance of it. Though as an author and a divine, Mr. Penn be little known, but to those of his own persuasion, his reputation, in a character no less respectable, is universal among all civilized nations. The circumstances of the times engaged vast numbers to follow him into his new settlement, to avoid the persecutions to which the quakers, like other sectaries, were then exposed; but it was to his own wisdom and ability, that they are indebted for that charter of privileges, which placed this colony on so respectable a footing. Civil and religious liberty, in the utmost latitude, was laid down by that great man, as the chief and only foundation of all his institutions. Christians of all denominations might not only live unmolested, but have a share in the government of the colony. No laws could be made but by the consent of the inhabitants. —Even matters of benevolence, to which the laws of few nations have extended, were by Penn subjected to regulations. The affairs of widows and orphans were to be enquired into by a court constituted for that purpose. The causes between man and man were not to be subjected to the delay and chicanery of the law, but decided by wise and honest arbitrators. His benevolence and generosity extended also to the Indian nations; instead of taking immediate advantage of his patent, he purchased of these people the lands he had obtained by his grant, judging that the original property, and eldest right was vested in them. William Penn, in short, had he been a native of Greece, would have had his statue placed next to those of Solon and Lycurgus. His laws, founded on the solid basis of equity, still maintain their force; and, as a proof of their effects, it is only necessary to mention, that land was lately granted at twelve pounds an hundred acres, with a quit-rent of four shillings reserved; whereas the terms on which it was formerly granted, were at twenty pounds the thousand acres, with one shilling quit-rent for every hundred. Near Philadelphia, before the commencement of the war with the mother-country, land rented at twenty shillings the acre: and even at several miles distance from that city, sold at twenty years purchase.

In some years, more people transported themselves into Pennsylvania, than into all the other settlements together. Upon the principal rivers settlements are made, and the country has been cultivated 150 miles above Philadelphia. In the grand convention which was held in Philadelphia, in the summer of 1787, the inhabitants of Pennsylvania were reckoned at 360,000. It is probable, they are now more numerous, perhaps 400,000. If we fix them at this, the population for every square

mile

mile, will be only nine, by which it appears that Pennsylvania is only one fifth as populous as Connecticut.

But Connecticut was settled nearly half a century before Pennsylvania; so that in order to do justice to Pennsylvania in the comparison, we must anticipate her probable population fifty years hence*. The people are hardy, industrious, and most of them substantial, though but few of the landed people can be considered as rich; but before the commencement of the civil war, they were all well lodged, well fed, and, for their condition, well clad; and this at the more easy rate, as the inferior people manufactured most of their own wear, both linens and woollens.

This province contains many very considerable towns, such as German-Town, Chester, Oxford, Radnor, all of which, in any other colony, would deserve being taken notice of more particularly. But here the city of Philadelphia, which is beautiful beyond any city in America, and in regularity, unequalled by any in Europe, totally eclipses the rest, and deserves our chief attention. It was built after the plan of the famous Penn, the founder and legislator of this colony. It is situated 100 miles from the sea, between two navigable rivers; the Delaware, where it is above a mile in breadth on the north, and the Schylkill on the south, which it unites, as it were, by running in a line of two miles between them. The whole town, when the original plan can be fully executed, is in this manner: every quarter of the city forms a square of eight acres, and almost in the centre of it is a square of ten acres, surrounded by the town house, and other public buildings. The High-street is 100 feet wide, and runs the whole breadth of the town: parallel to it run nineteen other streets, which are crossed by eight more at right angles, all of them 30 feet wide, and communicating with canals from the two rivers, which add not only to the beauty but to the wholesomeness of the city. According to the original plan, every man in possession of 1000 acres, in the province, had his house either in one of the fronts facing the rivers, or in the High-street, running from the middle of one front to the middle of the other. Every owner of 5000 acres, besides the above-mentioned privilege, was entitled to have an acre of ground in the front of the house, and all others might have half an acre for gardens and court-yards. The proprietor's seat, which is the usual place of the governor's residence, and is about a mile above the town, is the first private building, both for magnificence and situation in all British America. The barracks for the troops, the market, and other public buildings, are proportionably grand. The quays are spacious and fine, and the principal quay is 200 feet wide.

There were in this city a great number of very wealthy merchants; which is no way surprising, when we consider the great trade which it carried on with the English, Spanish, French, and Dutch colonies in America; with the Azores, the Canaries, and the Madeira islands, with Great Britain and Ireland, with Spain, Portugal, and Holland. Besides the Indian trade, and the quantity of grain, provisions, and all kinds of the produce of this province, which is brought down the rivers upon which this city is so commodiously situated, the Germans who are settled in the interior parts of this province, employ several hundred waggons, drawn each by four horses, in bringing the product of their farms to this market. In the year 1749, 303 vessels entered inwards at this port, and 291 cleared outwards; but in the year 1786, the number of vessels entered at the custom-house was 910.

The commodities formerly exported into Pennsylvania, at an average of

* Morse.

years, amounted to the value of 611,000l. Those exported to Great Britain and other markets, besides timber, ships built for sale, copper ore, and iron in pigs and bars, consisted of grain, flour, and many sorts of animal food; and, at an average of three years, were calculated at 705,500l. Since the colony's independance, the new duty upon imported goods of two and a half per cent. *ad valorem*, produced from the 1st of March to the 1st of December, 1784, 132,000l. in Philadelphia, which corresponds to an importation of 3,168,000l.

There was an academy established at Philadelphia, which has been greatly encouraged by contributions from England and Scotland, and which, before the civil war broke out, did fair to become a bright seminary of learning. It is now styled an UNIVERSITY; its funds were partly given by the state, and partly taken from the old college. And, in 1787, a college was founded at Lancaster; and, in honour of Dr. Franklin, called Franklin College.

Besides several other very improving institutions in this city, there is one which deserves a particular notice, which is THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, HELD AT PHILADELPHIA, FOR PROMOTING USEFUL KNOWLEDGE. This society was formed January 2, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time in Philadelphia; and were created one body corporate and politic, with such powers, privileges, and immunities as are necessary for answering the valuable purposes which the society had originally in view, by a charter granted by the commonwealth of Pennsylvania, on the 15th of March, 1780. This society has already published two very valuable volumes of their transactions, one in 1771, the other in 1786. In 1771, this society consisted of nearly 300 members; and upwards of 120 have since been added; a large proportion of which are foreigners of the first distinction in Europe. This is an evidence of the increasing respectability and improvement of the society.

It was in Philadelphia that the general congress of America met, in September, 1774; and their meetings continued to be chiefly held there, till the king's troops made themselves masters of that city, on the 26th of September, 1777. But in June, 1778, the British troops retreated to New York, and Philadelphia again became the residence of the congress.

In 1776, the representatives of the freemen of Pennsylvania met in a general convention at Philadelphia, and agreed upon the plan of a new constitution of government for that colony. They determined, that the commonwealth, or state of Pennsylvania, should be governed hereafter by an assembly of the representatives of the freemen of the same, and a president and council. That the supreme legislative power should be vested in a house of representatives of the freemen of the commonwealth or state of Pennsylvania. That the supreme executive power should be vested in a president and council of twelve. That every freeman of twenty-one years of age, having resided in Pennsylvania one year before the day of election for representatives, and paid public taxes during that time, should enjoy the right of an elector; and that the sons of freeholders, of twenty-one years of age, should be entitled to vote, although they had not paid taxes. That the house of representatives of the freemen of this commonwealth should consist of persons most noted for wisdom and virtue, to be chosen by the freemen of every city and county of this commonwealth respectively. And that no person should be elected, unless he had resided in the city or county for which he should be chosen, two years before the election; and that no member, while he continued such, should hold any other office, except in the militia. That no person should be capable of being elected a member to serve in the house of representatives of the freemen of this commonwealth more than four years in seven. That the members of the house of representatives should be chosen annually by ballot, and should be styled, "The General Assembly of Representatives of the Freemen of Pennsylvania," and should have power to choose their speaker, the treasurer of the state, and their other officers; to prepare bills and enact them into laws, to redress grievances, impeach state criminals, and have all other powers necessary for the legislature of a free state or commonwealth. That delegates to represent Pennsylvania in congress should be annually chosen by ballot, in general assembly of representatives. That the supreme executive council of this state should consist of twelve persons, to be chosen by the freemen of Philadelphia, and the several counties of Pennsylvania. That a president, and vice-president of this council should be chosen annually. That the president, and in his absence the vice president, and the council, five of whom are to be a quorum, should have power to appoint and commissionate judges, naval officers, judge of the admiralty, attorney-general, and other officers civil and military. That the president shall be commander in chief of the forces of the state, but shall not command in person, except advised thereto by the council, and then only so long as they shall approve. That all trials shall be by Jury; and that freedom of speech, and of the press, shall not be restrained. That all persons in public offices should declare their belief in one God, the creator and governor of the universe, the rewarder of the good, and the punisher of the wicked; and also acknowledge the Scriptures of the Old and New Testament to be given by divine inspiration. A variety of other particulars were also contained in this plan of government; wherein it was likewise determined, that the freemen of this commonwealth, and their sons, should be trained and armed for its defence, under such regulations, restrictions, and exceptions, as the general assembly should by law direct, preserving always to the people the right of choosing their colonel, and all commissioned officers under that rank, in such manner and as often as by the said laws should be directed. Two persons also are to be chosen by ballot every year for each county and city, by the freemen, to be called the "Council of Censors," who are to examine into the conduct of the legislative and executive powers.

M A R Y L A N D.

Situation and Extent.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles
Length	140	between	75 and 80 west longitude	
Breadth	135		37 and 40 north latitude	12,000

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Pennsylvania, on the North; by another part of Pennsylvania, and the Atlantic ocean on the East; by Virginia, on the South; and by the Apalachian mountains on the west.

Maryland is divided into two parts by the bay of Chesapeak, viz. The eastern; and, 2. The western division.

Division.

Diviſions.	Counties.	Chief towns.
The Eaſt diviſion contains the counties of	Worceſter	Princeſs Anne
	Somerſet	Snow Hill
	Dorſet	Dorſet, or Dorcheſter
	Talbot	Oxford
	Cecil	
	Queen Anne's	Queen's Town
	Kent	Cheſter
	Caroline	
The Weſt diviſion contains	St. ary's	St. Mary
	Charles	Briſtol
	Prince George	Maſterkout
	Calvert	Abington
	Arundel	ANNAPOLIS, W. long.
		76-50. N. lat. 39.
	Baltimore	Baltimore.
	Frederic	
	Waſhington	
	Montgomery	
	Hartford	

RIVERS.] This country is indented with a vaſt number of navigable creeks and rivers. The chief are Patowmac, Pocomoac, Patuxent, Cheptonk, Severn, and Saſſafras.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] In theſe particulars this province has nothing remarkable by which it may be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe already deſcribed. The hills in the inland country are of ſo eaſy aſcent, that they rather ſeem an artificial than a natural production. The climate is generally mild and agreeably ſuited to agricultural productions, and a great variety of fruit-trees. In the interior hilly country the inhabitants are healthy; but in the flat country, in the neighbourhood of the marſhes and ſtagnant waters, they are, as in the other ſouthern ſtates, ſubject to intermittents. The vaſt number of rivers diffuſes fertility through the ſoil, which is admirably adapted to the rearing of tobacco and wheat (which are the ſtaple commodoties of that country) hemp, Indian corn, grain, &c.

POPULATION AND COMMERCE.] The number of inhabitants, including the negroes, is eſtimated at 254,050, which is eighteen for every ſquare mile. The commerce of Maryland depends on the ſame principles with that of Virginia, and is ſo cloſely connected with it, that any ſeparation of them would rather confuſe than inſtruct. It will be conſidered therefore under that head.

HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT.] It ſeems as if all the provinces of North America were planted from motives of religion. Maryland, like thoſe we have formerly deſcribed, owes its ſettlement to religious conſiderations. As they, however, were peopled by Proteſtants, Maryland was originally planted by Roman Catholics. This ſect, towards the cloſe of Charles the Firſt's reign, was the object of great hatred to the bulk of the Engliſh nation; and the laws in force againſt the Papiſts were executed with great ſeverity. This in part aroſe from an opinion, that the court was too favourably diſpoſed towards this form of religion. It is certain, that many marks of favour were conferred on the Roman catholics. Lord Baltimore was one of the moſt eminent, in great favour with the court, and on that account moſt odious to the generality of the English. This nobleman, in 1632, obtained a grant from Charles of that country, which formerly was considered as a part of Virginia, but was now called Maryland, in honour of queen Henrietta Mary, daughter to Henry IV, of France, and spouse to king Charles. The year following, about 200 popish families, some of considerable distinction, embarked with lord Baltimore, to enter into possession of this new territory. These settlers, who had that liberality and good breeding which distinguish gentlemen, of every religion, bought their lands, at an easy price, from the native Indians; they even lived with them for some time in the same city; and the same harmony continued to subsist between the two nations, until the Indians were imposed on by the malicious insinuations of some planters in Virginia, who envied the prosperity of this popish colony, and inflamed the Indians against them, by ill-grounded reports, such as were sufficient to stir up the resentment of men naturally jealous, and who from experience had reason to be so. The colony, however, was not wanting to its own safety on this occasion. Though they continued their friendly intercourse with the natives, they took care to erect a fort, and to use every other precaution for their defence against sudden hostilities; the defeat of this attempt gave a new spring to the activity of this plantation, which was likewise receiving frequent reinforcements from England of those who found themselves in danger by the approaching revolution. But during the protectorship of Cromwell, every thing was overturned in Maryland. Baltimore was deprived of his rights; and a new governor, appointed by the protector, substituted in his room. At the restoration, however, the property of this province reverted to its natural possessor. Baltimore was reinstated in his rights, and fully discovered how well he deserved to be so. He established a perfect toleration in all religious matters: the colony increased and flourished, and dissenters of all denominations, allured by the prospect of gain, flocked into Maryland. But the tyrannical government of James II, again deprived this noble family of their possession, acquired by royal bounty, and improved by much care and expence.

At the revolution, lord Baltimore was again restored to all the profits of the government, though not to the right of governing, which could not consistently be conferred on a Roman catholic. But after the family changed their religion, they obtained the power as well as the interest. The government of this country exactly resembled that in Virginia, except that the governor was appointed by the proprietors and only confirmed by the crown. The government of Maryland is now vested in a governor, senate of 15, and house of delegates, all which are to be chosen annually. The governor is elected by ballot, by the senate and house of delegates. All freemen above twenty-one years of age, having a freehold of fifty acres, or property to the value of thirty pounds, have a right of suffrage in the election of delegates, which is *viva voce*. All persons appointed to any office of profit and trust, are to subscribe a declaration of their belief in the Christian religion.

In 1782, a college was founded at Chester town, in this province, under the name of *Washington College*, in honour of general Washington.

V I R G I N I A.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 750	between	75 and 90 weſt longitude	80,000
Breadth 240		36 and 40 north latitude	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by the river Potowmac, which divides it from Maryland, on the north-eaſt; by the Atlantic ocean, on the eaſt; by Carolina, on the ſouth; and the river Miſſiſſippi, on the weſt.

It may be divided into 75 counties, of very unequal ſize and population. Of theſe, 35 are on the tide waters, or in that parallel; 23 are in the midlands, between the tide waters and blue ridge of mountains; 8 between the blue ridge and Allegany; and 8 weſtward of the Allegany. The following table is taken from Morſe's American Geography:

Situation.	Counties.	Situation.	Counties.
Weſtward of the Allegany,	Lincoln	Between James river and Carolina,	Greeneſville
	Jefferſon		Dinwiddie
	Fayette		Cheſterfield
	Ohio		Prince George
	Monongalia		Surrey
	Waſhington		Suſſex
	Montgomery		Southampton
	Green-brier		Iſle of Wight
Between the Allegany and Blue Ridge,	Hampſhire		Nanſemond
	Berkley		Norfolk
	Frederick		Princeſs Anne
	Shenando	Between James and York rivers,	Henrico
	Rockingham		Hanover
	Auguſta		New Kent
	Rockbridge		Charles City
	Botetourt		James City
Between the Blue Ridge and Tide Waters,	Loudoun		Williamſburg
	Fauquier		York
	Culpeper		Warwick
	Spotſylvania		Elizabeth City
	Orange	Between York and Rappahanoc,	Caroline
	Louiſa		King William
	Goochland		King and Queen
	Fluvanna		Eſſex
	Albemarle		Middleſex
	Amherſt		Glouceſter
	Buckingham		
	Bedford		
	Henry		

Situation.	Counties.
Between the Blue Ridge and Tide Waters.	Pittſylvania Halifax Charlotte Prince Edward Cumberland Powhatan Amelia Lunenburg Mecklenburg Brunſwick
Between Rappahanoc and Patowmac,	Fairfax Prince William Stafford King George Richmond Weſtmoreland Northumberland Lancaſter
Eaſtern ſhore,	Accomac Northampton.

Capes, bays, and rivers.] In ſailing to Virginia or Maryland, you paſs a ſtrait between two points of land, called the Capes of Virginia, which opens a paſſage into the bay of Cheſapeak, one of the largeſt and ſafeſt in the whole world; for it enters the country near 300 miles from the ſouth to the north, is about 18 miles broad for a conſiderable way, and ſeven where it is the narroweſt, the waters in moſt places being nine fathoms deep. This bay, through its whole extent, receives a vaſt number of navigable rivers from the ſides of both Maryland and Virginia. From the latter, beſides others of leſs note, it receives James River, York River, the Rappahanoc, and the Potowmac: theſe are not only navigable for large ſhips into the heart of the country, but have ſo many creeks, and receive ſuch a number of ſmaller navigable rivers, that Virginia is, without all manner of doubt, the country in the world of all others of the moſt convenient navigation. It has been obſerved, and the obſervation is not exaggerated, that every planter has a river at his door.

Face of the country.] The whole face of this country is ſo extremely low towards the ſea, that you are very near the ſhore before you can diſcover land from the maſt-head. The lofty trees, which cover the ſoil, gradually riſe as it were from the ocean, and afford an enchanting proſpect. You travel 100 miles into the country, without meeting with a hill, which is nothing uncommon on this extenſive coaſt of North America.

Air and climate.] In ſummer the heats here are exceſſive, though not without refreſhing breezes from the ſea. The weather is changeable, and the change is ſudden and violent. Their winter froſts come on without the leaſt warning. To a warm day there ſometimes ſucceeds ſuch an intenſe cold in the evening, as to freeze over the largeſt rivers.

The air and ſeaſons here depend very much upon the wind, as to heat and cold, dryneſs and moiſture. In winter, they have a fine clear air, and dry, which renders it very pleaſant. Their ſpring is about a month earlier than in England; in April they have frequent rains; in May and June, the heat increaſes; and the ſummer is much like our's, being refreſhed with gentle breezes from the ſea, that riſe about nine o'clock, and decreaſe or increaſe as the ſun riſes or falls. In July and Auguſt, theſe breezes ceaſe, and the air becomes ſtagnant, and violently hot: in September, the weather generally changes, when they have heavy and frequent rains, which occaſion all the train of diſeaſes incident to a moiſt climate, particularly agues and intermitting fevers. They have frequent thunder and lightning, but it rarely does any miſchief.

Soil and produce.] Towards the ſea ſhore and the banks of the rivers, the ſoil of Virginia conſiſts of a dark rich mould, which, without manure, returns plentifully whatever is committed to it. At a diſtance from the water, there is a lightneſs and ſandineſs of the ſoil, which, however, is of a generous nature, and, helped by a kindly ſun, yields corn and tobacco extremely well.

From what has been ſaid of the ſoil and climate, it is eaſy to infer the variety and perfection of the vegetable productions of this country. The foreſts are covered with all ſorts of lofty trees; and no underwood or buſhes grow beneath; ſo that people travel with eaſe through the foreſts on horſeback, under a fine ſhade to defend them from the ſun: the plains are enamelled with flowers and flowering ſhrubs of the richeſt colours and moſt fragrant ſcent. Silk grows ſpontaneouſly in many places, the fibres of which are as ſtrong as hemp. Medicinal herbs and roots, particularly the ſnake-root, and the ginſeng of the Chineſe, are here in great plenty. There is no ſort of grain but might be cultivated to advantage. The inhabitants, however, are ſo engroſſed with the culture of the tobacco-plant, that they think if corn ſufficient for their ſupport can be reared, they do enough in this way. But flax and hemp are produced, not only for their own conſumption, but for exportation, though not in ſuch quantities as might be expected from the nature of the ſoil, admirably fitted for producing this commodity.

Animals.] We ſhall here obſerve, that there were neither horſes, cows, ſheep, nor hogs, in America, before they were carried thither by the Europeans; but now they are multiplied ſo extremely, that many of them, particularly in Virginia, and the ſouthern colonies, run wild. Before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, beef and pork were ſold here from one penny to two-pence a pound; their fatteſt pullets at ſix-pence a-piece; chickens at three or four ſhillings a dozen; geeſe at ten-pence; and turkeys at eighteen-pence a-piece. But fiſh and wild-fowl were ſtill cheaper in the ſeaſon, and deer were ſold from five to ten ſhillings a-piece. This eſtimate may ſerve for the other American colonies, where proviſions were equally plentiful and cheap, and in ſome ſtill lower. Beſides the animals tranſported from Europe, thoſe natural to the country are deer, of which there are great numbers, a ſort of panther or tyger, bears, wolves, foxes, and racoons. Here is likewiſe that ſingular animal, called the opoſſum, which ſeems to be the wood-rat mentioned by Charlevoix, in his hiſtory of Canada. It is about the ſize of a cat; and beſides the belly, common to it with other animals, it has another peculiar to itſelf, and which hangs beneath the former. This belly has a large aperture, towards the hinder legs, which diſcovers a large number of teats on the uſual parts of the common belly. Upon theſe, when the female of this creature conceives, the young are formed, and there they hang like fruit upon the ſtalk, until they grow in bulk and weight to the appointed ſize; when they drop off, and are received into the falſe belly, from which they go out at pleaſure, and in which they take refuge when any danger threatens them. In Virginia there are all ſorts of tame and wild fowl. They have the nightingale, whoſe plumage is crimſon and blue; the mocking-bird, thought to excel all others in his own note, and including that of every one; the humming-bird, the ſmalleſt of all the winged creation, and by far the moſt beautiful, all arrayed in ſcarlet, green, and gold. It ſips the dew from the flowers, which is all its nouriſhment, and is too delicate to be brought alive into England.

Character, manners, customs.] Virginia has produced ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed and influencial men that have been active in effecting the late grand and important revolution in America. Her political and military character will rank among the first in the page of history. But it is to be observed, that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public transactions, and who, in short, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themselves with politics, so that their government, though nominally republican, is, in fact, oligarchal, or aristocratical.

Several travellers give but a very indifferent account of the generality of the people of this province. The young men, observes one, generally speaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horse-jockies. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the discoveries of a Newton, are considered as infinitely inferior to the accomplishments of him who is expert in the management of a cock-fight, or dextrous in manœuvring at a horse-race. A spirit for literary inquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently subordinate to a spirit of gambling and barbarous sports. At almost every tavern or ordinary, on the public road, there is a billiard table, a back-gammon table, cards, and other implements for various games. To these public-houses the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood resort, to *kill* time, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this business they are extremely expert, having been accustomed to it from their earliest youth. The passion for cock-fighting, a diversion not only inhumanly barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of sense, is so predominant, that they even advertise their matches in the public papers *. This dissipation of manners is the consequence of indolence and luxury, which are the fruit of African slavery.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.} This is the first country which the English planted in America. We derived our right, not only to this, but to all our other settlements, as has been already observed, from the discovery of Sebastian Cabot, who, in 1497, first made the northern continent of America, in the service of Henry VII, of England. No attempts, however, were made to settle it till the reign of queen Elizabeth. It was then that Sir Walter Raleigh applied to court, and got together a company, which was composed of several persons of distinction, and several eminent merchants, who agreed to open a trade, and settle a colony, in that part of the world, which, in honour of queen Elizabeth, he called Virginia. Towards the close of the sixteenth century, several attempts were made for settling this colony, before any proved successful. The three first companies who sailed into Virginia, perished through hunger and diseases, or were cut off by the Indians. The fourth was reduced almost to the same situation; and being dwindled to a feeble remainder, had set sail for England, in despair of living in such an uncultivated country, inhabited by such hostile and warlike savages. But in the mouth of Chesapeak Bay, they were met by lord Delaware, with a squadron loaded with provisions, and with every thing necessary for their relief and defence. At his persuasion, they returned: by his advice, prudence, and winning behaviour, the internal government of the colony was settled within itself, and put on a respectable footing with regard to its enemies. This nobleman, who had accepted the government of the unpromising province of Virginia from the noblest motives, was compelled, by the decayed state of his health, to return to England. He left behind him, however, his son, as deputy; with Sir Thomas Gates, Sir

* A traveller through Virginia observes: Three or four matches were advertised in the public prints at Williamsburgh; and I was witness of five in the course of my travels from that to Port Royal.

George Sommers, the honourable George Piercy, and Mr. Newport, for his council. By them, James Town, the first town built by the English in the New World, was erected. The colony continued to flourish, and the true sources of its wealth began to be discovered and improved. The first settlers, like those of Maryland, were generally persons of considera-tion and distinction. It remained a steady ally to the royal party during the troubles of Great Britain. Many of the cavaliers, in danger at home, took refuge here; and, under the government of sir William Berke-ley, held out for the crown, until the parliament, rather by stratagem than force, reduced them. After the restoration, there is nothing very inte-resting in the history of this province. Soon after this time, a young gen-tleman, named Bacon, a lawyer, availing himself of some discontents in the colony, on account of restraints in trade, became very popular, and set every thing in confusion. His natural death, however, restored peace and unanimity; and the inhabitants of Virginia ceased to destroy them-selves.

The government of this province was not at first adapted to the prin-ciples of the English constitution, and to the enjoyment of that liberty to which a subject of Great Britain thinks himself entitled in every part of the globe. It was governed by a governor and council, appointed by the king of Great Britain. As the inhabitants increased, the inconveniency of this form became more grievous; and a new branch was added to the constitution, by which the people, who had formerly no consideration, were allowed to elect their representatives from each county into which this country is divided, with privileges resembling those of the representa-tives of the commons of England. Thus two houses, the upper and lower house of assembly, were formed. The upper house, which was before called the council, remained on its former footing; its members were ap-pointed, during pleasure, by the crown; they were styled Honourable, and answered in some measure to the house of peers in the British consti-tion. The lower house was the guardian of the people's liberties. And thus, with a governor representing the king, an upper and lower house of assembly, this government bore a striking resemblance to our own. When any bill had passed the two houses, it came before the governor, who gave his assent or negative, as he thought proper. It now acquired the force of a law, until it was transmitted to England, and his majesty's pleasure known on that subject. The upper house of assembly acted not only as a part of the legislature, but also as privy council to the governor, without whose concurrence he could do nothing of moment; it sometimes acted as a court of chancery.

The present government of this province, as settled in convention at Williamsburg, July 5th, 1776, is, that the legislative, executive, and judi-ciary departments be separate and distinct; that the house of delegates be chosen annually by the freeholders, two for each county, and for the dis-trict of West Augusta; and one representative for the city of Williamsburg and town of Norfolk. The senate to consist of 24 members, also chosen by the freeholders of the state, divided into 20 districts. The executive is a governor and privy-council, of eight members, chosen annually by the joint ballot of the general assembly of the state, who also choose the dele-gates to congress, the judges, and other law officers, president, treasurer, secretary, &c. justices, sheriffs, and coroners, commissioned by the go-vernor and council.

The inhabitants of Virginia were estimated, in 1782, at 567,614; of whom 270,762 are negroes. So much do they increase under the mild treatment they receive. In the very first session after their independence on Great Britain, the assembly passed a law for the perpetual prohibition of the importation of slaves. This will in some measure stop the increase of this great political and moral evil, while the minds of men may be ripening for a complete emancipation of human nature *. The inhabitants of Virginia are a cheerful, hospitable, and in general a well-bred people: some of them are accused of vanity and ostentation. Here are only two towns which deserve that name; the largest of which, and the capital of the province, is WILLIAMSBURG, 37-12. N. lat. 76-48. W. long. containing about sixty houses and some spacious public buildings. It is about forty miles from the mouth of James River, and seven from James Town, which was formerly the capital, and, before the present war, contained many taverns and public houses, for the entertainment of mariners. York Town and Gloucester will ever be famous for the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army.

In the following account of the commerce of Virginia, is also included that of Maryland. These provinces were supposed to export, of tobacco alone, to the annual value of 768,000l. into Great Britain. This, at eight pounds per hogshead, makes the number of hogsheads amount to 963,000. Of these, it is computed, that about 13,500 hogsheads were consumed at home, the duty on which, at 26l. 1s. per hogshead, came to 351,675l. the remaining 82,500 hogsheads were exported by our merchants to the other countries of Europe, and their value returned to Great Britain. The advantages of this trade appear by the bare mention of it. It may not be improper to add, that this single branch employed 330 sail of ships, and 7960 seamen. Not only our wealth, therefore, but the very sinews of our national strength, were powerfully braced by it. The other commodities of these colonies, of which naval stores, wheat, Indian corn, iron in pigs and bars, are the most considerable, made the whole exportation, at an average of three years, amount to 1,040,000l. The exports of Great Britain, the same as to our other colonies, at a like average, came to 865,000l.

Here is a college, founded by King William, called William and Mary college, who gave 2000l. towards it, and 20,000 acres of land, with power to purchase and hold lands to the value of 2000l. a year, and a duty of one penny per pound, on all tobacco exported to the other plantations. There is a president, six professors, and other officers, who are named by the governors, or visitors. The honourable Mr. Boyle made a very large donation to the college for the education of Indian children. The presbyterian denomination of Christians is the most numerous in this province; for though the first settlers were Episcopalians, yet through the indolence of the clergy, two-thirds of the people had become dissenters at the commencement of the late revolution.

* Morse.

NORTH

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, WITH GEORGIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	700	between	76 and 91 west longitude.	110,000.
Breadth	380		30 and 37 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Virginia, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, on the east; by the river St. John, which separates Georgia from Florida, on the south; and by the Mississippi, on the west.

NORTH CAROLINA.

District	Counties
Edenton, 9 Counties.	Chowan, Currituck, Cambden, Pasquetank, Perquimims, Gates, Hertford, Bertie, Tyrrel
Wilmington, 8 Counties.	New Hanover, Brunswick, Cumberland, Robinson, Duplin, Beaden, Wayne, Moore
Newbern, 8 Counties.	Craven, Beaufort, Carteret, Pitt, Dobbs, Hyde, Jones, Onslow

The above three districts of Edenton, Wilmington, and Newbern, are on the sea-coast, extending from the Virginia line south-westward to South Carolina.

District	Counties
Davidson 2 Counties.	Davidson, Sumner
Halifax, 7 Counties.	Halifax, Northampton, Martin, Edgecomb, Warren, Franklin, Nash
Hillsborough, 9 Counties.	Orange, Chatan, Granville, Johnston, Caswell, Sampson, Wake, Guildford, Randolph
Salisbury, 8 Counties.	Rowan, Mecklenberg, Rockingham, Surrey, Montgomery, Anson, Wilkes, Richmond
Morgan, 7 Counties.	Burke, Green, Rutherford, Washington, Sullivan, Lincoln, Hawkins

SOUTH CAROLINA hath seven districts, in which are 35 counties, as follows:

District	Counties.
BEAUFORT DISTRICT, on the sea-coast, between Combahee and Savannah rivers. Chief town BEAUFORT.	Hilton Lincoln Granville Shrewsbury
CHARLES-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee and Combahee rivers. Chief town CHARLES-TOWN. W. long. 79-12. N. lat. 32-45.	Charles-town Washington Marion Berkeley Colleton Bartholomew
GEORGE-TOWN DISTRICT, between Santee river and North-Carolina. Chief town GEORGE-TOWN.	Winyah Williamsburg Kingston Liberty
ORANGE DISTRICT, west of Beaufort district. Chief town ORANGE-BURGH.	Lewisburg Orange Lexington Winton
CAMDEN DISTRICT, west of George-town district. Chief town CAMDEN.	Clarendon Richland Fairfield Cleremont Lancaster York Chester
NINETY-SIX DISTRICT, comprehends all other parts of the state, not included in the other district. Chief town CAMBRIDGE.	Abbeville Edgefield Newbury Union Laurens Spartanburgh Greenville
CHERAWS DISTRICT, west of George-town district, chief towns are	Marlborough, Chesterfield, Darlington.

GEORGIA. That part of the state which hath been laid out in counties is thus divided;

Counties.	Principal Towns.
Chatham	SAVANNAH, N. lat. 32-5. W .long. 80-20.
Effingham	Ebenezer
Burke	Waynesburg and Louisville
Richmond	AUGUSTA
Wilkes	Washington
Liberty	Sunbury
Glynn	Brunswick
Camden	St. Patrick's
Washington	Golphinton
Green	Greensburg.
Franklin	

RIVERS.] These are the Roanoke, or Albemarle river; Pamtico; Neus; Cape Fear, or Clarendon river; Pedee; Santee; Savannah; Alatamaha, or George river, and St. Mary's, which divides Georgia from Florida: all which rivers rise in the Apalachian mountains, and running east, fall into the Atlantic ocean. The back parts are watered by the Cherokees, Yasous, Mobile, Apalachicola, the Pearl river, and many other noble streams which fall into the Mississippi, or the Gulf of Mexico.

SEAS, BAYS, AND CAPES.] The only ſea bordering on this country is that of the Atlantic ocean; which is ſo ſhallow near the coaſt, that a ſhip of any great burden cannot approach it, except in ſome few places. There has not yet been found one good harbour in North Carolina; the beſt are thoſe of Roanoke, at the mouth of Albemarle River, Pamtico, and Cape Fear. In South Carolina, there are the harbours of Winyaw, or George-town, Charles-town, and Port Royal. In Georgia, the mouths of the rivers Savannah and Alatamaha form good harbours.

The moſt remarkable promontories are, Cape Hatteras, in 35 deg. odd minutes north lat. Cape Fear to the South of it, and Cape Carteret ſtill farther ſouth.

CLIMATE AND AIR.] There is not any conſiderable difference between the climate of theſe countries. In general, it agrees with that of Virginia; but where they differ, it is much to the advantage of Carolina. The ſummers, indeed, are of a more intenſe heat than in Virginia, but the winters are milder and ſhorter. The climate of Carolina, like all American weather, is ſubject to ſudden tranſitions from heat to cold, and from cold to heat; but not to ſuch violent extremities as Virginia. The winters are ſeldom ſevere enough to freeze any conſiderable water, affecting only the mornings and evenings; the froſts have never ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the noon-day ſun; ſo that many tender plants, which do not ſtand the winter of Virginia, flouriſh in Carolina, for they have oranges in great plenty near Charles-town, and excellent in their kinds both ſweet and ſour.

SOIL, PRODUCE, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.} In this reſpect, too, there is a conſiderable coincidence between theſe countries and Virginia: the Carolinas, however, in the fertility of nature, have the advantage; but Georgia hath not ſo good a ſoil as the other provinces. The whole country is in a manner one foreſt, where our planters have not cleared it. The trees are almoſt the ſame in every reſpect with thoſe produced in Virginia; and by the different ſpecies of theſe, the quality of the ſoil is eaſily known. The land in Carolina is eaſily cleared, as there is little or no underwood, and the foreſts moſtly conſiſt of tall trees at a conſiderable diſtance. Thoſe grounds which bear the oak, the walnut, and the hichory, are extremely fertile; they are of a dark ſand intermixed with loam; and as all their land abounds with nitre, it is a long time before it is exhauſted; for here they never uſe any manure. The pine barren is the worſt of all; this is an almoſt perfectly white ſand; yet it bears the pine-tree, and ſome other uſeful plants, naturally yielding good profit in pitch, tar, and turpentine. When this ſpecies of land is cleared, for two or three years together it produces very good crops of Indian corn and peas; and, when it lies low, and is flooded, it even anſwers for rice. But what is moſt fortunate for this province is, that this worſt part of its land is favourable to a ſpecies of the moſt valuable of all its products, to one of the kinds of indigo. The low, rich, ſwampy grounds bear their great ſtaple, rice. The country near the ſea is much the worſt, in many parts little better than an unhealthy ſalt marſh, for Carolina is all an even plain for 80 miles from the ſea, not a hill, not a rock, nor ſcarcely even a pebble to be met with. But the country, as you advance in it, improves continually; and at 100 miles diſtance from Charles-town, where it begins to grow hilly, the ſoil is of a prodigious fertility, fitted for every purpoſe of human life; nor can any thing be imagined more pleaſant to the eye than the variegated diſpoſition of this back country. Here the air is pure and whole-

ſome,

ſome; and the ſummer heat much more temperate than in the flat ſandy coaſt.

In Carolina, the vegetation of every kind of plant is incredibly quick. The climate and ſoil have ſomething in them ſo kindly, that the latter, when left to itſelf, naturally throws out an immenſe quantity of flowers and flowering ſhrubs. All the European plants arrive at perfection here beyond that in which their native country affords them. With proper culture and encouragement, ſilk, wine, and oil, might be produced in theſe colonies; of the firſt we have ſeen ſamples equal to what is brought to us from Italy. Wheat grows extremely well in the back parts, and yields a prodigious increaſe.

From what we have obſerved of theſe valuable provinces, their productions appear to be, vines, wheat, rice, Indian corn, barley, oats, peas, beans, hemp, flax, cotton, tobacco, indigo, olives, orange, citron, cypreſs, ſaſſafras, oak, walnut, caſſia, and pine trees; white mulberry-trees for feeding ſilk-worms; ſarſaparilla, and pines which yield turpentine, reſin, tar, and pitch. There is a kind of tree from which runs an oil of extraordinary virtue for curing wounds; and another, which yields a balm thought to be little inferior to that of Mecca. There are other trees beſides theſe that yield gums. The Carolinas produce prodigious quantities of honey, of which they make excellent ſpirits, and mead as good as Malaga ſack. Of all theſe the three great ſtaple commodities at preſent are the indigo, rice, and the produce of the pine. Nothing ſurpriſes an European more at firſt ſight than the ſize of the trees here, as well as in Virginia and other American countries. Their trunks are often from 50 to 70 feet high, without a branch or limb; and frequently above 36 feet in circumference. Of theſe trunks when hollowed, the people of Charles-town, as well as the Indians, make canoes, which ſerve to tranſport proviſions and other goods from place to place; and ſome of them are ſo large, that they will carry 30 or 40 barrels of pitch, though formed of one piece of timber. Of theſe are likewiſe made curious pleaſure boats.

ANIMALS.] The original animals of this country do not differ much from thoſe of Virginia; but in Carolina they have a ſtill greater variety of beautiful fowls. All the animals of Europe are here in plenty; black cattle are multiplied prodigiouſly; to have 200 or 300 cows is very common, but ſome have 1000 or upwards. Theſe ramble all day at pleaſure in the foreſt; but their calves being ſeparated and kept in fenced paſtures, the cows return every evening to them. The hogs range in the ſame manner, and return like the cows; theſe are very numerous, and many run quite wild, as well as horned cattle and horſes, in the woods. It is ſurpriſing that the cattle ſhould have increaſed ſo quickly ſince their being firſt imported from Europe, while there are ſuch numbers of wolves, tygers, and panthers, conſtantly ranging the woods and foreſts. We have already obſerved, that theſe animals are leſs ravenous than the beaſts of Africa and Aſia; they very ſeldom attempt to kill either calves or foals in America, and when attacked, their dams make a vigorous defence.

HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] The firſt Engliſh expeditions into Carolina were unfortunate. Nothing ſucceſsful was done in this way till the year 1663, in the reign of Charles II. At that time ſeveral Engliſh noblemen, and others of great diſtinction, obtained a charter from the crown, inveſting them with the property and juriſdiction of this country. They parcelled out the lands to ſuch as were willing to go over into the new ſettlement,

and

WEST INDIES from the best AUTHORITIES.
Explanation.
E. English
F. French
S. Spanish
Du: Dutch
Da: Danish
LOUISIANA
WEST FLORIDA
EAST FLORIDA
GULF OF MEXICO
BAY OF CAMPEACHE
BAHAMA OR LUCAYOS ISLANDS E.
GREAT BANK OF BAHAMA
THE FLORIDA STREAM
GULF OF FLORIDA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
CUBA
SEA OF HONDURAS
BAY OF HONDURAS
JAMAICA
HISPANIOLA OR St. DOMINGO
The Western part belongs to the French, the Eastern to the Spaniards
PORTO RICO
THE VIRGIN ISLANDS
THE LEEWARD ISLANDS
CARIBBEE ISLES
THE WINDWARD ISLANDS
THE GRANADINES
CARIBBEAN SEA
LEEWARD ISLES
THE SPANISH MAIN
PACIFIC OCEAN
MEXICO OR NEW SPAIN
YUCATAN
HONDURAS
MOSQUITOS SHORE
COSTA RICA
VERAGUA
DARIEN
BAY OF PANAMA
CARTHAGENA
SANTA MARTHA
VENEZUELA
CARACAS
CUMANA
PARIA
GUAYANA
TERRA FIRMA
SOUTH AMERICA
Mouth of the Missisippi
New Orleans
St. Augustin
C. Cannaveral
C. Florida
The Promontory
HAVANAH
Merida
Campeache
Vera Cruz
Rio Bravo
Guatimala
Cozumel
Little Cayman
Great Cayman
Kingston
Pt. Morant
St. Domingo
Antigua E.
Guadaloupe
Martinico F.
Dominica E.
Barbadoes E.
St. Lucia F.
St. Vincent
Granada E.
Tobago E.
Trinidad S.
Curacao Du.
Buen-aire Du.
Orchilla
la Margarita
Maracaibo
Carthagena
Porto Bello
Panama
C. Gracios a Dios
Old Providence
St. Andres
Pearl Key
G. of Papagayo
Leon
Nicaragua
Carthago
C. Blanco
G. of Dulce
Omoa
British Statute Miles
25 50 100 200
West Longitude from London 95
90
85
80
75
70
65
60

Explanation.
E. English
F. French
S. Spanish
Du: Dutch
Da: Danish
A T L A N T I C
O C E A N
The Corcos or les Caques
Turks I.
A Shoal
Cave du Nord
Old C. Francois
Samana I.
B. of Samana
St. Domingo
C. del Engano
Saona
PORTO RICO S.
THE VIRGIN ISLANDS
Anegada E.
Tortola E.
Anguilla E.
St. Martins F.
Barbuda E.
St. Bartholomew F.
St. Croix Da.
St. Eustatia Du.
St. Christophers E.
Antigua E.
Monserrat E.
Desseada F.
Grand Terre F.
Guadaloupe F.
Basse-terre
Marie-Galante F.
THE LEEWARD ISLANDS
Aves I.
Charlotte Town
Dominica E.
Martinico F.
Ft. Royal
THE WINDWARD ISLANDS
Barbadoes E.
St. Lucia F.
Bridge Town
St. Vincent E.
THE GRANADINES
Granada E.
Fort Royal
Tobago E.
CARIBBEE ISLES
A N S E A
LEEWARD ISLES
Orua Du.
Curacao Du.
Buen-aire Du.
Orchilla
I. Blanca
la Margarita
Tortuga Salada
C. Codera
la Guaira
G. of Triste
Leon de Caracas
Valencia
CARACAS
G. of Cariaco
Cumana
CUMANA
PARIA
Trinidad S.
GUARAUNOS
Mouth of the Oroonoco
Gulf of Venezuela
Lake of Maracaybo
Gibraltar
Merida
Carora
Baraquicimeto
Guayana
GUAYANA
F I R M A
A M E R I C A
West Longi
70
65
60
30
25
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15
10

and to ſubmit to a ſyſtem of laws, which they employed the famous Locke to compoſe for them.

They began their firſt ſettlement at a point of land towards the ſouthward of their diſtrict, between two navigable rivers. Here they laid the foundation of a city, called Charles-town, which was deſigned to be, what it is now, the capital of the province. In time, however, the diſputes between the church of Englandmen and diſſenters cauſed a total confuſion in the colony. This was rendered ſtill more intolerable by the incurſions of the Indians, whom they had irritated by their inſolence and injuſtice. In order to prevent the fatal conſequences of theſe inteſtine diviſions and foreign wars, an act of parliament was paſſed, which put this colony under the immediate protection of the crown. The lords proprietors accepted a recompence of about 24,000l. for both the property and juriſdiction; and the conſtitution of this colony, in thoſe reſpects in which it differed from the royal colonies, was altered. Earl Grenville, however, thought fit to retain his ſeventh ſhare, which continued in the poſſeſſion of his family. For the more convenient adminiſtration of affairs, too, Carolina was divided into two diſtricts, and two governments. This happened in 1728, and from that time, peace being reſtored in the internal government, as well as with the Cherokees and other Indian tribes, theſe provinces began to breathe: and their trade advanced with wonderful rapidity.

The ſettlement of Georgia was projected in 1732, when ſeveral public-ſpirited noblemen, and others, from compaſſion to the poor of theſe kingdoms, ſubſcribed a conſiderable ſum, which, with 10,000l. from the government, was given to provide neceſſaries for ſuch poor perſons as were willing to tranſport themſelves into this province, and to ſubmit to the regulations impoſed on them. In proceſs of time, new ſums were raiſed, and new inhabitants ſent over. Before the year 1752, upwards of 1000 perſons were ſettled in this province. It was not, however, to be expected, that the inhabitants of Georgia, removed as they were at a great diſtance from their benefactors, and from the check and control of thoſe who had a natural influence over them, would ſubmit to the magiſtrates appointed to govern them. Many of the regulations, too, by which they were bound, were very improper in themſelves, and deprived the Georgians of privileges which their neighbours enjoyed, and which, as they increaſed in numbers and opulence, they thought it hard they ſhould be deprived of. From theſe corrupt ſources aroſe all the bad humours which tore to pieces this conſtitution of government. Diſſenſions of all kinds ſprung up, and the colony was on the brink of deſtruction, when, in 1752, the government took it under their immediate care, removed their particular grievances, and placed Georgia on the ſame footing with the Carolinas.

The method of ſettling in Carolina, and indeed in other provinces of Britiſh America, was to pitch upon a void ſpace of ground, and either purchaſe it at the rate of 20l. for 1000 acres, and one ſhilling quit-rent for every 100 acres; or otherwiſe, to pay a penny an acre quit-rent yearly to the proprietors, without purchaſe-money. The people of Carolina live in the ſame eaſy, plentiful, and luxurious manner with the Virginians, already deſcribed. Poverty is here almoſt an entire ſtranger; and the planters are the moſt hoſpitable people that are to be met with, to all ſtrangers, and eſpecially to ſuch as by accident or misfortunes, are rendered incapable of providing for themſelves.

The general topic of converſation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, and tobacco, &c. They appear to have as little taste for the sciences, as for religion. Political enquiries and philosophical disquisitions are attended to but by a few men of genius and industry; and are too laborious for the indolent minds of the people at large. Less attention and respect are paid to the women here, than in those parts of the United States, where the inhabitants have made a greater progress in the arts of civilized life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by observation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilization, in the same proportion will respect for the women be increased: so that the progress of civilization in countries, in states, in towns, and in families, may be remarked by the degree of attention which is paid by husbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

Temperance and industry are not to be reckoned among the virtues of the North Carolinians. The time which they waste in drinking, idling, and gambling, leaves them very little opportunity to improve their plantations or their minds. The improvement of the former is left to their overseers and negroes; the improvement of the latter is too often neglected. Were the time, which is thus wasted, spent in cultivating the soil and in treasuring up knowledge, they might be both wealthy and learned, for they have a productive country, and are by no means destitute of genius.

Time that is not employed in study or useful labour, is generally spent in every country in hurtful or innocent exercises, according to the custom of the place or the taste of the parties. The citizens of North Carolina, who are not better employed, spend their time in drinking, or gaming, at cards or dice, in cock-fighting, or horse-racing. Many of the interludes are filled up with a boxing-match; and these matches frequently become memorable by feats of *gouging* *.

In a country that pretends to any degree of civilization, one would hardly expect to find a prevailing custom of putting out the eyes of each other, yet this more than barbarous custom is prevalent in both the Carolinas, and in Georgia, among the lower class of people. Of the origin of this custom we are not informed. We presume there are few competitors for the honour of having originated it; and equally as few who are envious of the *pleasure* of those who have the *honour* to continue it.

The only place in either of the Carolinas worthy of notice is Charlestown, W. Long. 79-12. N. Lat. 32-45. the metropolis of South Carolina, which for size, beauty, and trade, may be considered as one of the first in British America. It is admirably situated at the confluence of two navigable rivers, one of which is navigable for ships 20 miles above the town, and for boats and large canoes near 40. The harbour is good in every respect, but that of a bar, which hinders vessels of more than 200 tuns burthen, loaded, from entering. The town is regularly and pretty strongly fortified by nature and art; the streets are well cut; the houses are large and well built; some of them are of brick, and others of wood, but all of them handsome and elegant, and rent is extremely high. The streets are wide and straight, intersecting each other at right angles; those running east and west extend about a mile from

* The *delicate* and *entertaining diversion*, with propriety called *gouging*, is thus performed. When two *boxers* are wearied with fighting and bruising each other, they come, as it is called, to *close quarters*, and each endeavours to twist his forefingers in the ear-locks of his antagonist. When these are fast clinched, the thumbs are extended each way to the nose, and the eyes *gently* turned out of their sockets. The victor for his expertness receives shouts of applause from the sportive throng, while his poor *eyeless* antagonist, is laughed at for his misfortune. Morse.

one river to the other. It contains about 1000 houſes, and was the ſeat of the governor, and the place of meeting of the aſſembly. Its neighbourhood is beautiful beyond deſcription. Several handſome equipages are kept here. The planters and merchants are rich and well bred: and before the war between Great Britain and the colonies, the people were ſhowy and expenſive in their dreſs and way of living; ſo that every thing conſpired to make this by much the livelieſt, the lovelieſt, and politeſt place, as it is one of the richeſt too, in all America. It ought alſo to be obſerved, for the honour of the people of Carolina, that when, in common with the other colonies, they reſolved againſt the uſe of certain luxuries, and even neceſſaries of life; thoſe articles which improve the mind, enlarge the underſtanding, and correct the taſte were excepted; the importation of books was permitted, as formerly.

North and Sou[illegible]arolina joined with the other colonies in their revolt againſt Britain; and in 1780, Charles-town being beſieged by the king's troops, ſurrendered on capitulation, with 6000 men in arms priſoners, on the 11th of May in that year, after the ſiege had continued ſeven weeks.

As South Carolina has met with infinitely more attention than the other provinces, the commerce of this country alone employed 140 ſhips, while that of the other two did not employ 60. Its exports to Great Britain of native commodities, on an average of three years, amounted to more than 395,000l. annual value; and its imports to 365,000l. The exports of North Carolina were computed at about 70,000l. and its imports at 18,000l. The trade of Georgia is likewiſe in its infancy; the exports amounted to little more than 74,000l. and the imports to 49,000l.

The trade between Carolina and the Weſt Indies was the ſame in all reſpects with that of the reſt of the colonies, and was very large; their trade with the Indians was in a very flouriſhing condition; and they formerly carried Engliſh goods on pack horſes 500 or 600 miles into the country weſt of Charles-town.

The mouths of the rivers in North Carolina form but ordinary harbours, and do not admit, except one at Cape Fear, veſſels of above 70 or 80 tons. This lays a weight upon their trade, by the expence of lighterage. Edenton is the capital of North Carolina, but little more than a trifling village; they were lately projecting a town farther ſouth, which would be more centrical.

Georgia has two towns already known in trade. Savannah, the capital, is commodiouſly ſituated for an inland and foreign trade, about ten miles from the ſea, upon a noble river of the ſame name, which is navigable for 200 miles farther for large boats, to the ſecond town, called Auguſta, which ſtands in a country of the greateſt fertility, and carries on a conſiderable trade with the Indians. From the town of Savannah you ſee the whole courſe of the river towards the ſea; and, on the other hand, you ſee the river for about 60 miles up into the country. Here the Rev. Mr. George Whitefield founded an orphan-houſe, which is now converted to a very different uſe, into a college for the education of young men deſigned chiefly for the miniſtry. By a late eſtimate of their population, the number of inhabitants in North Carolina is 270,000, of which 60,000 are negroes; in South Carolina 80,000 whites, and about 100,000 negroes; and in Georgia, in the grand convention at Philadelphia, in 1787, the inhabitants of this ſtate were reckoned at 90,000, including three-fifths of 20,000 negroes*.

* Morſe.

In October, 1779, the town of Savannah being in poſſeſſion of the king's troops, was beſieged by 8000 of the American and French troops in conjunction; but they were bravely repulſed by the king's troops, with a great ſlaughter of the French and Americans. But Savannah, as well as Charles town, was afterwards evacuated by the king's troops, and reſtored to the Americans.

The government of North Carolina it now veſted in a governor, ſenate, and houſe of commons, all elected annually; the executive power is a governor and ſeven counſellors: of South Carolina, in a governor, ſenate of 23, and a houſe of repreſentatives of 202 members: and that of Georgia in a governor, executive council of 12, and houſe of aſſembly of 72 repreſentatives.

NEW STATES FORMED IN NORTH AMERICA.

THE *New State of Franklin*, was formed by the union of three counties in North Carolina. But, after much confuſion, all pretenſions to independency were at length relinquiſhed, and it is now re-united with its parent ſtate. Beſides this, two other ſtates have lately ariſen, thoſe of KENTUCKY, and VERMONT. Of theſe we ſhall give ſome account in this place.

K E N T U C K Y.

[*Belonging at preſent to the State of Virginia.*]

THIS country was firſt diſcovered by one M'Bride, in 1754. Its central part is ſituated near the latitude of 38 N. and 85 W. long. It is bounded on the north by Sandy Creek; by the Ohio on the NW. by North Carolina on the ſouth; and by Cumberland mountains on the eaſt.

Kentucky is divided into ſeven counties:

Counties.	Chief Towns.
Jefferſon, at the falls of the Ohio	Louiſville
Fayette —— ——	Lexington
Bourbon —— ——	None
Mercer —— ——	Harrodſtown
Nelſon —— ——	Bardſtown
Maddiſon —— ——	None
Lincoln —— ——	None

In all theſe, as well as in many other places, are houſes for the inſpection of tobacco.

The Ohio bounds Kentucky in its whole length. This ſtate is watered by many rivers, and the greateſt part of the ſoil is amazingly fertile, and is more temperate and healthy than any part in America. Here are buffaloes, bears, deer, elks, and many other animals, common to the United States, and others entirely unknown to them. In the rivers are the fineſt fiſh and abundant. Salmon, roach, perch, eel, and all kinds of hook-fiſh. The paroquet is common here, as is the ivory-bill woodcock, of a whitiſh colour, with a white plume; the bill is pure ivory. Here is an owl like our's, but different in vociferation. It makes a ſurpriſing noiſe like a man in diſtreſs. Its natural curioſities are aſtoniſhing and innumerable. Caves are found amazingly large, in ſome of which you may travel ſeveral miles under a fine limeſtone rock, ſupported by curious arches and pillars. In moſt of them run ſtreams of water. Near Lexington are to be ſeen curious ſepulchres full of human ſkeletons. There are three ſprings or ponds of bitumen near Green River, which diſcharge themſelves into a common reſervoir, and when uſed in lamps, anſwer all the purpoſes of the fineſt oil *. There are many allum banks, and different places abounding with copper, which when refined is equal to any in the world. At a ſalt ſpring near the Ohio river, very large bones have been found far ſurpaſſing the ſize of any ſpecies of animals now in America, the head appears to have been conſiderably above three feet long. Dr. Hunter ſaid it could not be the elephant, and that from the form of the teeth it muſt have been carnivorous, and belonging to a race of animals now extinct. Specimens have been ſent to France and England. What animal this is, and by what means its ruins are found in theſe regions (where none ſuch now exiſt) are very difficult queſtions, and variouſly reſolved. The variety of conjectures only ſerve to ſhow the futility of all.

The Miſſiſſippi and Ohio, are the keys to the northern parts of the weſtern continent. The uſual route to Kentucky is from Philadelphia, or Baltimore, by the way of Peterſburgh. From the mouth of the Ohio to New Orleans (a diſtance not exceeding 460 miles in a ſtraight line) is 856 by water. The mouth empties itſelf by ſeveral channels into the Gulf of Mexico.

An idea may be formed of the aſtoniſhing emigrations to this country, from the following account taken by the adjutant of the troops ſtationed at Fort Harmer, at the mouth of Muſkingum.

From the 10th of October, 1786, to the 12th of May, 1787, 177 boats, containing 2689 ſouls, 1353 horſes, 766 cattle, 112 waggons and two phaetons, beſides a very conſiderable number that paſſed in the night unobſerved.

It is at preſent peopled by above one hundred and fifty thouſand ſettlers. From the interior ſettlements of this vaſt country, America will derive her future greatneſs, and eſtabliſh new empires, to rival, and perhaps outdo the ancient world.

V E R M O N T.

THE ſtate of Vermont is a vaſt country, ſituated eaſtward of New Hampſhire, ſouth of Maſſachuſetts, and weſt of New York. It is

* Morſe's American Geography, p. 407.

155 miles in length, and 60 in breadth. The capital of the ſtate is Bennington.

The Allens are the chiefs or head men of the country. It is governed by its own laws, independent of congreſs and the ſtates. Hitherto it has been an object of contention between the ſtates of New York and New Hampſhire. The people had, for a long time, no other name than Green Mountain Boys, which they gallicized into Verdmont, and ſince corrupted into the eaſier pronunciation of Vermont.

The antique foreſts, into which the arm of man is juſt carrying the deſtructive axe, every where afford the moſt grand and ſublime proſpects. Little of the land of this ſtate is yet cleared, but the emigrations to it from other ſtates are great, and it will ſoon become well cultivated, and equal in fertility to the ſtates it approximates. Its population is ſaid already to amount to 150,000.

The declaration which they made by their repreſentatives in convention, at Windſor, on the 25th of December, 1777, and which makes a part of their conſtitution, breathes as high a ſpirit of liberty, as that of any of their neighbours. They aſſert that all men are born equally free—with equal rights, and ought to enjoy liberty of conſcience—freedom of the preſs—trial by jury—power to form new ſtates in vacant countries, and to regulate their own internal police—that all elections ought to be free—that all power is originally in the people—that government ought to be inſtituted for the common benefit of the community—and that the community have a right to reform or aboliſh government—that every member of ſociety hath a right to protection of life, liberty, and property—and in return is bound to contribute his proportion of the expence of that protection, and yield his perſonal ſervice when neceſſary—that he ſhall not be obliged to give evidence againſt himſelf—that the people have a right to bear arms—but no ſtanding armies ſhall be maintained in time of peace—that the people have a right to hold themſelves, their houſes, papers, and poſſeſſions free from ſearch or ſeizure, and therefore warrants, without oaths firſt made, affording ſufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right, and ought not to be granted—that no perſon ſhall be liable to be tranſported out of this ſtate for trial, for any offence committed within this ſtate, &c.*

The ſtates of New York and Pennſylvania have large tracts of fertile land, extending to the lakes, proper for the forming of ſettlements, and very capital ones have lately been made. This country will in future prove one of the moſt advantageous commercial ſituations in America, having in a manner the key of Canada, and of all the northern Indian trade; the navigation extending from the weſtern ſea to the lakes, has no other obſtruction than ſmall portages, which in time will be converted into canals. The fur trade will chiefly centre in this country.

In the inland country of Virginia and North Carolina, the ſettlements in many parts extend to the mountains. In the eaſtern parts of Virginia, ſettlements have been made in the mountains themſelves, where ſome induſtrious Germans (who found the lands in the vallies taken up) have eſtabliſhed conſiderable plantations.

South Carolina has immenſe tracts of fertile land unſettled.

The ſtate of Virginia, poſſeſſing lands on the other ſide of the mountains,

* Morſe's American Geography, p. 427.

tains (and having more immediate communication with the Ohio country on the river) many thousands have passed over them, and settled themselves in that tract which lies between the mountains and the river. It is said some emigrants have crossed that river, and settled in the country bordering on the lakes.

By a late settlement, the country to the southward of the Ohio is included in the state of Virginia. All the country to the northward of this great river, extending from Pennsylvania to the east, the lakes on the north, and the Mississippi on the west, are intended to be divided by congress into ten new states:

WASHINGTON,
METROPOTAMIA,
PESILIPPA,
MICHIGANIA,
ILLINOIA,
CHERSONESUS,
SARATOGA,
SYLVANIA,
ASSENIPI,
POLYPOTAMIA.

These ten states (spreading over an immense tract of land) are traversed by the great river Ohio, in a course of 1200 miles, receiving into its waters the innumerable rivers which are scattered over the whole country. On the north they are bounded by the five great lakes, Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario; which empty themselves into the river St. Laurence. On the east they have the states of New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, whose navigation (as well as the St. Laurence affords them a direct communication with the Atlantic Ocean. On the south they are partly bounded by the mountains, and on the west by the vast river Mississippi (whose source is unknown) and which after flowing through the great continent of America (admitting into its swelling waves the tributes of a thousand waters) falls into the Gulf of Mexico.

WEST INDIES.

WE have already observed, that between the two continents of America lie a multitude of islands which we call the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark. As the climate and seasons of these islands differ widely from what we can form any idea of, by what we perceive at home, we shall, to avoid repetitions, speak of them in general, and mention some other particulars that are peculiar to the West Indies.

The climate in all our West India islands is nearly the same, allowing for those accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about 30 degrees to the south, they are continually subjected to the extreme of an heat which would be intolerable, if the trade wind, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner, as to enable them to attend to their concerns even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows ſmartly from the land, as it were from the centre, towards the ſea, to all points of the compaſs at once.

By the ſame remarkable providence in the diſpoſing of things, it is, that when the ſun has made a great progreſs towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him ſuch a vaſt body of clouds, as ſhield them from his direct beams; and diſſolving into rain, cool the air, and refreſh the country, thirſty with the long drought, which commonly reigns from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the Weſt Indies (and we may add in the Eaſt Indies) are by no means ſo moderate as with us. Our heavieſt rains are but dews comparatively. They are rather floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuoſity; the rivers riſe in a moment; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a ſhort time, all the low country is under water *. Hence it is the rivers which have their ſource within the tropics, ſwell and overflow their banks at a certain ſeaſon; but ſo miſtaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and ſcorched up with a continued and fervent heat, and to be for that reaſon uninhabitable; when, in reality, ſome of the largeſt rivers of the world have their courſe within its limits, and the moiſture is one of the greateſt inconveniences of the climate in ſeveral places.

The rains make the only diſtinction of ſeaſons in the Weſt Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no froſts, no ſnows, and but rarely ſome hail; the ſtorms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailſtones very great and heavy.—Whether it be owing to this moiſture, which alone does not ſeem to be a ſufficient cauſe, or to a greater quantity of ſulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds, that are ſubject to the action of ſuch cauſes, ruſt and canker in a very ſhort time; and this cauſe, perhaps as much as the heat itſelf, contributes to make the climate of the Weſt Indies unfriendly and unpleaſant to an European conſtitution.

It is in the rainy ſeaſon (principally in the month of Auguſt, more rarely in July and September) that they are aſſaulted by hurricanes; the moſt terrible calamity to which they are ſubject (as well as the people in the Eaſt Indies) from the climate; this deſtroys, at a ſtroke, the labours of many years, and proſtrates the moſt exalted hopes of the planter, and often juſt at the moment when he thinks himſelf out of the reach of fortune. It is a ſudden and violent ſtorm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious ſwelling of the ſeas, and ſometimes with an earthquake; in ſhort, with every circumſtance, which the elements can aſſemble, that is terrible and deſtructive. Firſt, they ſee as the prelude to the enſuing havock, whole fields of ſugar-canes whirled into the air, and ſcattered over the face of the country. The ſtrongeſt trees of the foreſt are torn up by the roots, and driven about like ſtubble; their windmills are ſwept away in a moment; their utenſils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and ſtills of ſeveral hundred weight, are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houſes are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blaſt; whilſt the rain, which in an hour riſes five feet, ruſhes in upon them with irreſiſtable violence.

The hurricane comes on either in the quarters, or at the full or change of the moon. If it comes on at the full moon, obſerve theſe ſigns. That day you will ſee the ſky very turbulent; you will obſerve the ſun more red than at other times; you will perceive a dead calm, and the hills clear

* See Wafer's Journey acroſs the Iſthmus of Darien.

of all those clouds and mists which usually hover about them. In the clefts of the earth, and in the wells, you hear a hollow rumbling sound, like the rushing of a great wind. At night the stars seem much larger than usual, and surrounded with a sort of burs; the north-west sky has a black and menacing look; the sea emits a strong smell, and rises into vast waves, often without any wind; the wind itself now forsakes its usual steady easterly stream, and shifts about to the west; from whence it sometimes blows with intermissions violently and irregularly for about two hours at a time. The moon herself is surrounded with a great bur, and sometimes the sun has the same appearance. These are signs which the Indians of these islands taught our planters, by which they can prognosticate the appearance of an hurricane.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China in very early times, from whence we had the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not settled whether the cane, from which this substance is extracted be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but however that matter may be, in the beginning they made the most as they still do the best sugars which come to market in this part of the world, The juice within the sugar-cane is the most lively, elegant, and least cloying sweet in nature; and which, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses, rum is distilled, and from the scummings of sugar, a meaner spirit is procured. Rum finds its market in North America, where it is consumed by the inhabitants, or employed in the African trade, or distributed from thence to the fishery of Newfoundland, and other parts; besides what comes to great Britain and Ireland. However, a very great quantity of molasses is taken off raw, and carried to New England to be distilled there. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for the cattle, and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, by the particulars, we have seen, and by others which we may easily imagine, the expences of a plantation in the West Indies are very great, and the profits at the first view precarious: for the chargeable articles of the wind-mill, the boiling, cooling, and distilling houses, and the buying and subsisting a suitable number of slaves and cattle, will not suffer any man to begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5000l. Neither is the life of a planter, if he means to acquire a fortune, a life of idleness and luxury; at all times he must keep a watchful eye upon his overseers, and even oversee himself occasionally. But at the boiling season, if he is properly attentive to his affairs, no way of life can be more laborious, and more dangerous to the health; from a constant attendance, day and night, in the extreme united heats of the climate, and so many fiery furnaces: add to this, the losses by hurricanes, earthquakes, and bad seasons; and then consider when the sugars are in the cask, that he quits the hazard of a planter, to engage in the hazards of a merchant, and ships his produce at his own risk. These considerations might make one believe, that it could never answer to engage in this business; but notwithstanding all this, there are no parts of the world, in which great estates are made in so short a time, from the produce of the earth, as the West Indies. The produce of a few good seasons generally provides against the ill effects of the worst, as the planter is sure of a speedy and profitable market for his produce, which has a readier sale than perhaps any other commodity in the world.

Large plantations are generally under the care of a manager, or chief overseer, who has commonly a salary of 150l. a year, with overseers under him in proportion to the greatness of the plantation; one to about 30 negroes, with a salary of about 40l. Such plantations too have a surgeon at a fixed salary, employed to take care of the negroes which belong to it. But the course which is the least troublesome to the owner of the estate is, to let the land, with all the works, and the stock of cattle and slaves, to a tenant, who gives security for the payment of rent, and the keeping up repairs and stock. The estate is generally estimated to such a tenant at half the neat produce of the best years; such tenants, if industrious and frugal men, soon make good estates for themselves.

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it: some are subsisted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea and Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields 10l. or 12l. annually. The price of men negroes upon their first arrival is from 30l. to 36l. women and grown boys 50s. less: but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands, generally bring above 40l. upon an average one with another: and there are instances of a single negro man expert in business bringing 150 guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

To particularise the commodities proper for the West India market, would be to enumerate all the necessaries, conveniencies, and luxuries of life; for they have nothing of their own but cotton, coffee, tropical fruits, spices, and the commodities I have already mentioned.

Traders there make a very large profit upon all they sell; but from the numerous shipping constantly arriving from Europe, and a continual succession of new adventurers, each of whom carry out more or less as a venture, the West India market is frequently overstocked; money must be raised, and goods are sometimes sold at prime cost or under. But those who can afford to store their goods, and wait for a better market, acquire fortunes equal to any of the planters. All kinds of handicraftsmen, especially carpenters, bricklayers, braziers, and coopers, get very great encouragement. But it is the misfortune of the West Indies, that physicians and surgeons even outdo the planter and merchant, in accumulating riches.

Before the late war, there were allowed to be in our West Indies at least 230,000 negro slaves; and upon the highest calculation, the whites there in all did not amount to 90,000 souls. This disproportion between the freemen and negroes, which grows more visible every day, some writers have endeavoured to account for, by alledging, that the enterprising spirit which the novelty of the object, and various concurrent causes, had produced in the last century, has decayed very much. That the disposition of the West Indians themselves, who for cheapness choose to do every thing by negroes which can possibly be done by them, contributes greatly to the ſmall number of whites of the lower ſtations, ſuch indeed is the powerful influence of avarice, that though the whites are kept in conſtant terror of inſurrections and plots, many families employ 25 or 30 negroes as menial ſervants, who are infinitely the moſt dangerous of the ſlaves, and in caſe of any inſurrection, they have it more in their power to ſtrike a ſudden and fatal blow: and the cruelty with which the negroes are often treated, gives the white inhabitants too much reaſon for their apprehenſions, that the negroes may endeavour to revenge themſelves upon their maſters.

The firſt obſervation that has been mentioned, in order to account for the preſent diſproportion between the freemen and the negroes in the Weſt Indies, we think is not well founded: that enterpriſing ſpirit which firſt led Britons out to diſcovery and colonization, ſtill animates in a very conſiderable degree the people of this nation; but the field has been lately more ample and enlarged, and emigrants have had greater ſcope whereon to range. Beſides the vaſt continent of North America, which takes in ſuch a variety of climates, and diſcovers ſuch a richneſs of ſoil; the Eaſt Indies, an inexhauſtible mine of riches, have in ſome degree drawn the attention of mankind from that of the weſt. Countries as well as individuals, attain a name and reputation for ſomething extraordinary, and have their day. Many of the beſt families of this nation are ambitious of procuring places for their ſons in the Eaſt Indies. Here is an ample field for all adventurous ſpirits, who diſdaining an idle life at home, and ambitious of becoming uſeful to themſelves, their connections, or the community, boldly venture into the immenſe regions of this Eaſtern world. Others, full as remote from an indolent diſpoſition, but with leſs conduct and inferior abilities, ſet out with the moſt ſanguine hopes. Theſe are your fiery, reſtleſs tempers, willing to undertake the ſevereſt labour, provided it promiſes but a ſhort continuance, who love riſk and hazard, whoſe ſchemes are always vaſt, and who put no medium between being great and being undone.

The iſlands of the Weſt Indies lie in the form of a bow, or ſemicircle, ſtretching almoſt from the coaſt of Florida north, to the river Oronoque, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the firſt inhabitants; though this is a term that moſt geographers confine to the Leeward Iſlands. Sailors diſtinguiſh them into Windward and Leeward Iſlands, with regard to the uſual courſes of ſhips, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Portobello.—The geographical tables and maps diſtinguiſh them into the great and little Antilles.

JAMAICA.] The firſt that we come to belonging to Great Britain, and alſo the moſt important, after leaving Florida, is Jamaica, which lies between the 75th and 79th degrees of weſt longitude from London, and between 17 and 18 north latitude. From the eaſt and weſt it is in length about 140 miles, and in the middle about 60 in breadth, growing leſs towards each end, in the form of an egg. It lies near 4500 miles ſouthweſt of England.

This iſland is interſected with a ridge of ſteep rocks, tumbled by the frequent earthquakes in a ſtupendous manner upon one another. Theſe rocks, though containing no ſoil on their ſurface, are covered with a great variety of beautiful trees, flouriſhing in a perpetual ſpring; they are nouriſhed by the rains which often fall, or the miſts which continually brood on the mountains, and which, their root penetrating the crannies of the rocks, induſtriouſly ſeek out for their own ſupport. From the rocks iſſue a vaſt number of ſmall rivers of pure wholeſome waters, which tumble down in cataracts, and together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies or plains between those ridges are level beyond what is ordinary in most other countries, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven; but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West Indies, are into the dry and wet seasons. The air of this island is, in most places, excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable: and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is very terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness, and the lightening in these violent storms frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes, of which we shall speak hereafter. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together. In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues. It gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greatest and most valuable production of this island. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces also ginger, and the Pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper; the wild cinnamon-tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the machineel, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worst poisons in nature; the mahogany, in such use with our cabinet-makers, and of the most valuable quality; but this wood begins to wear out, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large size and durable; the cabbage-tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which when dry is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much esteemed by the savages, both in food and medicine; the soap-tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and redwood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated; and the cotton tree is still so. No sort of European grain grows here; they have only maize or Indian Corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, but none of them resembling our's, with variety of roots. Fruits, as has been already observed, grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, soursops, papas, pine-apples, custard-apples, star-apples, prickly pears, allicada, pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries, also garden-stuffs in great plenty, and good. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have great plenty of hogs: many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceedingly sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome, and hardy, and when well made generally sell for 30 or 40l. sterling. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and sea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, and in particular more parrots than in any of the other islands; besides parroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks, and turkies; the humming-bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and gallewasp; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eats into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes; and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any part of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag. As soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle, or point of a penknife, taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes, and eat the flesh to the very bone.

This island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under our dominion.— Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English, and the government of it is one of the richest places, next to that of Ireland, in the disposal of the crown, the standing salary being 2,500l. per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000l. per annum.

We have already observed, that the government of all the American islands is the same, namely, that kind which we have formerly described under the name of a royal government. Their religion too is universally of the church of England; though they have no bishop, the bishop of London's commissary, being the chief religious magistrate in those parts,

About the beginning of this century, it was computed, that the number of whites in Jamaica amounted to 60,000, and that of the negroes to 120,000. It appears at present that Jamaica is rather on the decline, as is the number of inhabitants, the whites not exceeding 25,000, and the blacks 90,000. Besides these, a number of fugitive negroes have formed a sort of colony among the blue mountains, independent of the whites, with whom they make treaties, and are in some respects useful to the inhabitants of the island, particularly in sending back runaway slaves.

Indigo was once very much cultivated in Jamaica, and it enriched the island to so great a degree, that in the parish of Vere, where this drug was chiefly cultivated, they are said to have had no less than 300 gentlemen's coaches; a number perhaps even the whole island exceeds not at this day; and there is great reason to believe, that there were many more persons of property in Jamaica formerly than there are now, though perhaps they had not those vast fortunes which dazzle us in such a manner at present. However, the Jamaicans were undoubtedly very numerous, until reduced by earthquakes, and by terrible epidemical diseases, which treading on the heels of the former calamities, swept away vast multitudes The decrease of inhabitants, as well as the decline of their commerce, arises from the difficulties to which their trade is exposed, of which they do not fail to complain to the court of Great Britain; that as they are of late deprived of the most beneficial part of their trade, the carrying of negroes and dry goods to the Spanish coast; the low value of their produce, which they ascribe to the great improvements the French make in their sugar colonies, who are enabled to underſell them by the lowneſs of their duties; and the trade carried on from Ireland and the northern colonies to the French and Dutch iſlands where they pay no duties, and are ſupplied with goods at an eaſier rate. Some of theſe complaints, which equally affect the other iſlands, have been heard, and ſome remedies applied; others remain unredreſſed. Both the logwood trade, and this contraband, have been the ſubjects of much contention, and the cauſe of a war between Great Britain and the Spaniſh nation. The former we always avowed, and claimed as our right, and at the peace of 1763, it was confirmed to us. The latter we permitted; becauſe we thought, and very juſtly, that if the Spaniards found themſelves aggrieved by any contraband trade, it lay upon them, and not upon us, to put a ſtop to it, by their guarda coſtas which cruiſe in theſe ſeas, purpoſely to ſeize and confiſcate ſuch veſſels and cargoes as are found in this trade. In this manner did the Britiſh court argue, till the politics of this nation, in compliance with the court of Spain, thought proper to ſend Engliſh cruiſers to the American coaſt, effectually to cruſh that lucrative trade, of which the whole body of Britiſh ſubjects in America loudly complained, as it put a ſtop to the principal channel which hitherto enabled them to remit ſo largely to Great Britain.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It ſtood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the ſea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The conveniency of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thouſand ſail of large ſhips, and of ſuch depth as to allow them to load and unload at the greateſt eaſe, weighed ſo much with the inhabitants, that they choſe to build their capital on this ſpot, though the place was a hot dry ſand, and produced none of the neceſſaries of life, not even freſh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the reſort of pirates, made it a place of great conſideration. Theſe pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with an inconſiderate bravery, and then ſpent their fortune in this capital with an inconſiderate diſſipation. About the beginning of the year 1692, no place for its ſize, could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which ſhook the whole iſland to the foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, ſo as to leave, in one quarter, not even the ſmalleſt veſtige remaining. In two minutes, the earth opened and ſwallowed up nine tenths of the houſes, and two thouſand people. The water guſhed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but ſome of them had the good fortune to catch hold of beams and rafters of houſes, and were afterwards ſaved by boats. Several ſhips were caſt away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of ſinking houſes, and did not overſet, but afforded a retreat to ſome hundreds of people, who ſaved their lives upon her. An officer, who was in the town at this time, ſays, the earth opened and ſhut very quick in ſome places, and he ſaw ſeveral people ſink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads juſt above ground, and were ſqueezed to death. At Savannah, above a thouſand acres were ſunk, with the houſes and people in them; the place appearing for ſome time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houſes were ſeen. In ſome parts mountains were ſplit; and at one place a plantation was removed to the diſtance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a ſecond time, ten years after, deſtroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1722, was it laid in rubbiſh by a hurricane, the moſt terrible on record. Such repeated calamities ſeemed to mark out this place as a devoted ſpot; the inhabitants, therefore, reſolved to forſake it for ever, and to reſide at the oppoſite bay, where they built Kingſton, which is lately become the capital of the iſland. It conſiſts of upwards of one thouſand houſes, many of them handſomely built, and in the taſte of theſe iſlands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one ſtory high, with porticos, and every conveniency for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingſton, ſtands St. Jago de la Vega, a Spaniſh town, which, though at preſent inferior to Kingſton, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is ſtill the ſeat of government, and the place where the courts of juſtice are held.

On the 3d of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almoſt overwhelmed the little ſea-port town of Savannah-la-Mer, in Jamaica, and part of the adjacent country. Very few houſes were left ſtanding, and a great number of lives were loſt. Much damage was alſo done, and many lives periſhed, in other parts of the iſland.

The whole product of the iſland may be reduced to theſe heads. Firſt, ſugars, of which they exported in 1753, twenty thouſand, three hundred, and fifteen hogſheads, ſome vaſtly great, even to a ton weight, which cannot be worth leſs in England than 424,725l. Moſt of this goes to London, Briſtol, and Glaſgow, and ſome part of it to North America, in return for the beef, pork, cheeſe, corn, peas, ſtaves, planks, pitch, and tar, which they have from hence. Second, rum, of which they export about four thouſand puncheons. The rum of this iſland is generally eſteemed the beſt, and is the moſt uſed in Great Britain. Third, molaſſes, in which they made a great part of their returns for New England, where there are vaſt diſtilleries. All theſe are the produce of the grand ſtaple, the ſugar-cane. According to the late teſtimony of a reſpectable planter, in Jamaica, that iſland hath 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of ſugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they ſend out two thouſand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconſiderable; but ſome cocoa and coffee are exported, with a conſiderable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, ſweetmeats, mahogany, and machineel planks. But ſome of the moſt conſiderable articles of their trade, are with the Spaniſh continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter, they carried on a vaſt and profitable trade in negroes, and all kinds of European goods. And even in time of war with Spain, this trade between Jamaica, and the Spaniſh Main goes on, which it will be impoſſible for Spain to ſtop, whilſt it is ſo profitable to the Britiſh merchant, and whilſt the Spaniſh officers, from the higheſt to the loweſt, ſhow ſo great a reſpect to preſents properly made. Upon the whole, many of the people of Jamaica, whilſt they appear to live in ſuch a ſtate of luxury, as in moſt other places leads to beggary, acquire great fortunes, in a manner inſtantly. Their equipages, their clothes, their furniture, their tables, all bear the tokens of the greateſt wealth and profuſion imaginable. This obliges all the treaſure they receive to make but a very ſhort ſtay, being hardly more than ſufficient to anſwer the calls of their neceſſity and luxury on Europe and North America.

On Sundays, or court time, gentlemen wear wigs, and appear very gay in coats of ſilk, and veſts trimmed with ſilver. At other times they generally wear only thread ſtockings, linen drawers, a veſt, a Holland cap, and a hat upon it. Men ſervants wear a coarſe linen frock, with buttons at the neck and hands, long trowſers of the ſame, and a check ſhirt. The negroes, except thoſe who attend gentlemen, who have them dreſſed in

their

their own livery, have once a year Osnaburghs, and a blanket for clothing, with a cap or handkerchief for the head. The morning habit of the ladies is a loose night-gown, carelessly wrapped about them; before dinner they put off their dishabille, and appear with a good grace in all the advantage of a rich and becoming dress.

The common drink of persons in affluent circumstances is Madeira wine mixed with water. Ale and claret are extravagantly dear; and London porter sells for a shilling per bottle. But the general drink, especially among those of inferior rank, is rum punch, which they call Kill-Devil, because being frequently drank to excess, it heats the blood, and brings on fevers, which in a few hours send them to the grave, especially those who are just come to the island, which is the reason that so many die here upon their first arrival.

English money is seldom seen here, the current coin being entirely Spanish. There is no place where silver is so plentiful, or has a quicker circulation. You cannot dine for less than a piece of eight, and the common rate of boarding is three pounds per week; though in the markets, beef, pork, fowl, and fish, may be bought as cheap as in London; but mutton sells at nine-pence per pound.

Learning is here at a very low ebb; there are indeed some gentlemen well versed in literature, and who send their children to Great Britain, where they have the advantage of a polite and liberal education; but the bulk of the people take little care to improve their minds, being generally engaged in trade, or riotous dissipation.

The misery and hardships of the negroes are truly moving; and though great care is taken to make them propagate, the ill-treatment they receive so shortens their lives, that instead of encreasing by the course of nature, many thousands are annually imported to the West-Indies, to supply the place of those who pine and die by the hardships they receive. It is said, that they are stubborn and untractable, for the most part, and that they must be ruled with a rod of iron; but they ought not to be crushed with it, or to be thought a sort of beasts, without souls, as some of their masters or overseers do at present, though some of these tyrants are themselves the dregs of this nation, and the refuse of the jails of Europe. Many of the negroes, however, who fall into the hands of gentlemen of humanity, find their situations easy and comfortable; and it has been observed, that in North America, where in general these poor wretches are better used, there is a less waste of negroes, they live longer and propagate better. And it seems clear, from the whole course of history, that those nations which have behaved with the greatest humanity to their slaves, were always best served, and ran the least hazard from their rebellions.—The slaves, on their first arrival from the coasts of Guinea, are exposed naked to sale, they are then generally very simple and innocent creatures, but they soon become roguish enough; and when they come to be whipped, excuse their faults by the example of the whites. They believe every negroe returns to his native country after death. This thought is so agreeable, that it cheers the poor creatures, and renders the burthen of life easy, which would otherwise, to many of them, be quite intolerable.—They look on death as a blessing, and it is surprising to see with what courage and intrepidity some of them meet it; they are quite transported to think their slavery is near at an end, that they shall revisit their native shore, and see their old friends and acquaintance. When a negroe is about to expire, his fellow slaves kiss him, and wish him a good journey, and send their hearty good wishes to their relations in Guinea. They make no lamentations ; but with a great deal of joy inter his body, believing he is gone home and happy.

BARBADOES.] This iſland, the moſt eaſterly of all the Carribees, is ſituated in 59 degrees weſt long. and 13 degrees north lat. It is 21 miles in length, and in breadth 14. When the Engliſh, ſome time after the year 1625, firſt landed here, they found it the moſt ſavage and deſtitute place they had hitherto viſited. It had not the leaſt appearance of ever having been peopled even by ſavages. There was no kind of beaſts of paſture or of prey, no fruit, no herb, nor root, fit for ſupporting the life of man. Yet as the climate was ſo good, and the ſoil appeared fertile, ſome gentlemen of ſmall fortunes in England reſolved to become adventures thither. The trees were ſo large, and of a wood ſo hard and ſtubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was neceſſary for their ſubſiſtence. By unremitting perſeverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable ſupport ; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the ſoil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, anſwered tolerably. Theſe proſpects, together with the ſtorm between king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to tranſport themſelves into this iſland. And what is extremely remarkable, ſo great was the increaſe of people in Barbadoes, 25 years after its firſt ſettlement, that in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of Negroes, and Indian ſlaves ; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour ; for they ſeized upon all thoſe unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring iſlands, and carried them into ſlavery. A practice which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcileable to us ever ſince. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate ſugar, which ſoon rendered them extremely wealthy.—The number of the ſlaves therefore was ſtill augmented : and in 1676, it is ſuppoſed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000, make 150,000 on this ſmall ſpot ; a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world moſt renowned for numbers. At this time Barbadoes employed 400 ſail of ſhips, one with another of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in ſugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron-water, were above 350,000l and their circulating caſh at home was 200,000l. Such was the increaſe of population, trade, and wealth, in the courſe of 50 years. But ſince that time, this iſland has been much on the decline, which it is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French ſugar colonies, and partly to our own eſtabliſhments in the neighbouring iſles. Their number at preſent are ſaid to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 ſlaves. Their commerce conſiſts in the ſame articles as formerly, though they deal in them to leſs extent. The capital is Bridgetown, where the governor reſides, whoſe employment is ſaid to be worth 5000l. per annum. They have a college founded and well endowed by colonel Codrington, who was a native of this iſland. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has ſuffered much by hurricanes, fires, and the plague. On the 10th of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occaſioned vaſt devaſtation in Barbadoes, great numbers of the houſes were deſtroyed, not one houſe in the iſland was wholly free from damage, many perſons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the ſea, and there periſhed.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.] This iſland, commonly called by the ſailors St. Kitt's, is ſituated in 62 degrees weſt long. and 17 degrees north lat. about 14 leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long and ſeven broad. It has its name from the famous Chriſtopher Columbus, who diſcovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention: and in 1626, it was settled by the French and English conjunctly; but entirely ceded to us by the peace of Utrecht. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it generally produces near as much sugar as Barbadoes, and sometimes quite as much. It is computed that this island contains 6000 Whites, and 36,000 Negroes. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but was restored again to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

ANTIGUA.] Situated in 61 deg. W. long. and 17 deg. N. lat. is of a circular form, near 20 miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, has now got the start of the rest of the English harbours, being the best and safest as a dock-yard, and an establishment for the royal navy; but St. John's is the port of greatest trade; and this capital, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward Islands. Antigua is supposed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 slaves.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.] Two small islands, lying between St. Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and are said each to contain 5000 whites, and 10,000 slaves. The soil in these four islands is pretty much alike, light and sandy, but notwithstanding, fertile in a high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar cane. Both were taken by the French in the year 1782, but restored at the peace.

BARBUDA.] Situated in 18 deg. N. lat. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has an indifferent road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.] Situated in 19 deg. N. lat. 60 miles north-west of St. Christopher's, is about 30 miles long and 10 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica.—The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry, and feeding of cattle.

DOMINICA.] Situated in 16 deg. N. lat. and in 62 W. long. lies about half way between Guadaloupe and Martinico. It is near 28 miles in length, and 13 in breadth; it got its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of coffee than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West-Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of fine water. The French have always opposed our settling here, because it must cut off their communication, in time of war, between Martinico and Guadaloupe. However, by the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded in express terms to the English; but we have derived little advantage from this conquest, the island being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled their own settlements, have taken refuge here. But, on account of its situation between the principal French islands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the most capacious in the West Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itself, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but was restored again to Great Britain by the late peace.

ST. VINCENT.] Situated in 13 deg. N. lat. and 61 deg. W. long. 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes, 30 miles south of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 18 in breadth. It is extremely fruitful, being a black mould upon a ſtrong loam, the moſt proper for the raiſing of ſugar. Indigo thrives here remarkable well, but this article is leſs cultivated than formerly throughout the Weſt Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here are alſo fugitives from Barbadoes and the other iſlands. The Caribbeans were treated with ſo much injuſtice and barbarity, after this iſland came into poſſeſſion of the Engliſh, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get poſſeſſion of it again in 1779; but it was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

GRANADA AND THE GRANADINES.] Granada is ſituated in 12 deg. north lat. and 62 deg. weſt long. about 30 leagues ſouth-weſt of Barbadoes, and almoſt the ſame diſtance north of New Andaluſia, or the Spaniſh Main. This iſland is ſaid to be 30 miles in length, and 15 in breadth. Experience has proved, that the ſoil of this iſland is extremely proper for producing ſugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flouriſhing a colony as any in the Weſt Indies, of its dimenſions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the iſland, ſupplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the iſland, ſome of which may be fortified with great advantage, which renders it very convenient for ſhipping; and it has the happineſs of not being ſubject to hurricanes. St. George's bay has a ſandy bottom, and is extremely capacious, but open. In its harbour or careening place, 100 large veſſels may be moored with perfect ſafety. This iſland was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which theſe handful of Caribbees defended themſelves with the moſt reſolute bravery. In the laſt war but one, when Granada was attacked by the Engliſh, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were ſo amazed at the reduction of Guadaloupe and Martinico, that they loſt all ſpirit, and ſurrendered without making the leaſt oppoſition; and the full property of this iſland, together with the ſmall iſlands on the north, called the Granadines, which yield the ſame produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris, in 1763.—But in July, 1779, the French made themſelves maſters of this iſland, though it was reſtored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace.

NEWFOUNDLAND.] Excluſive of the Weſt Indian ſugar iſlands, lying between the two continents of America, Great Britain claims ſeveral others, that are ſeated at the diſtance of ſome thouſand miles from each other, in this quarter of the globe, of which we ſhall ſpeak according to our method, beginning with the north.

Newfoundland is ſituated to the eaſt of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 deg. north lat. and between 53 and 59 deg. weſt long. Separated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the Straits of Belliſle, and from Canada by the Bay of St. Lawrence, being 350 miles long, and 200 broad. The coaſts are extremely ſubject to fogs, attended with almoſt continual ſtorms of ſnow and ſleet, the ſky being uſually overcaſt. From the ſoil of this iſland we are far from reaping any ſudden or great advantage, for the cold is long continued and ſevere; and the ſummer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the ſoil, at leaſt in thoſe parts of the iſland with which we are acquainted, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by ſeveral good rivers, and hath many large and good harbours. This iſland, whenever the continent ſhall come to fail of timber convenient to navigation (which on the ſea-coaſt perhaps is no very remote proſpect) it is ſaid, will afford a large ſupply for maſts, yards, and all ſorts of lumber for the Weſt India

trade

trade. But what at present it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fishery of cod, carried on upon those shoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery: on board of which and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 10,000 hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to so many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the Royal navy. This fishery is computed to encrease the national stock 300,000l. a year in gold and silver, remitted to us for the cod we sell in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod both on the Great Bank, and the lesser ones, which lie on the east and south-east of this island, is inconceivable, and not only cod, but several other species of fish are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the Isle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts, from which we may observe that where our colonies are thinly peopled, or so barren as not to produce any thing from their soil, their coasts make us ample amends, and pour in upon us a wealth of another kind, and no way inferior to that arising from the most fertile soil.

This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England, by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets on the northern shores of the island; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the southward of Newfoundland, was also ceded to the French, who stipulated to erect no fortifications on these islands, nor to keep more than 50 soldiers to enforce the police. By the last treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fisheries on the north and west coast of the island. The chief towns in Newfoundland are Placentia, Bonavista, and St John; but not above 1000 families remain here in the winter.

CAPE BRETON.] This island, seated between Newfoundland and Nova Scotia, is in length about 110 miles. The soil is barren, but it has good harbours, particularly that of Louisburg, which is near four leagues in circumference, and has every where six or seven fathoms water.

The French began a settlement in this island in 1714, which they continued to increase, and fortified it in 1720. They were, however, dispossessed in 1745, by the bravery of the inhabitants of New England, with little assistance from Great Britain; but it was again, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, ceded to the French, who spared no expence to fortify and strengthen it. Notwithstanding which, it was again reduced, in 1758, by the British troops, under genenal Amherst and admiral Boscawen, together with a large body of New England men, who found in that place two hundred and twenty one pieces of cannon, and eighteen mortars, together with a large quantity of ammunition and stores; and it was ceded to the crown of Great Britain by the peace of 1763, since which the fortifications have been blown up, and the town of Louisburg dismantled.

ST. JOHN's.] Situated in the gulf of St. Lawrence, is about 60 miles in length, and 30 or 40 broad, and has many fine rivers; and though lying near Cape Breton and Nova Scotia, has greatly the advantage of both in pleasantness and fertility of soil. Upon the reduction of Cape

Breton, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to 4000, submitted quietly to the British arms; and, to the disgrace of the French governor, there were found in his house several English scalps, which were brought there to market by the savages; this being the place where they were encouraged to carry on that barbarous and inhuman trade. This island was so well improved by the French, that it was styled the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork.

BERMUDAS, OR SUMMER ISLANDS.] These received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called the Summer Islands, from Sir George Summers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated at a vast distance from any continent, in 32 deg. north lat. and in 65 degrees west lon. Their distance from the Lands' End is computed to be near 1500 leagues, from the Madeiras about 1200, and from Carolina 300. The Bermudas are but small, not containing in all above 20,000 acres; and are very difficult of access, being, as Waller the poet, who resided some time there, expresses it, ‘Walled with rocks.’ The air of these islands, which Waller celebrates in one of his poems, has been always esteemed extremely healthful; and the beauty and richness of the vegetable productions are perfectly delightful. Though the soil of these islands is admirably adapted to the cultivation of the vine, the chief and only business of the inhabitants, who consist of about 10,000, is the building and navigating of light sloops and brigantines, which they employ chiefly in the trade between North America and the West-Indies. These vessels are as remarkable for their swiftness, as the cedar, of which they are built, is for its hard and durable quality.

The town of St. George, which is the capital, is seated at the bottom of a haven in the island of the same name, and is defended with seven or eight forts, and seventy pieces of cannon. It contains above 1000 houses, a handsome church, and other elegant public buildings.

LUCAY's, OR BAHAMA ISLANDS.] The Bahamas are situated to the south of Carolina, between 12 and 27 degrees north lat. and 73 and 81 degrees west long. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to the isle of Cuba; and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only mere rocks; but 12 of them are large, fertile, and in nothing different from the soil of Carolina; they are, however, almost uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas; though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations. Between them and the continent of Florida is the gulf of Bahama, or Florida, through which the Spanish galleons sail in their passage to Europe. These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667, when captain Seyle, being driven among them in his passage to Carolina, gave his name to one of them; and being a second time driven upon it, gave it the name of Providence. The English, observing the advantageous situation of these islands for being a check on the French and Spaniards, attempted to settle them in the reign of Charles II. Some unlucky incidents prevented this settlement from being of any advantage, and the Isle of Providence became a harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to dislodge the pirates, and for making a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was stationed in the island. Ever since this last settlement these islands have been improving, though they advance but ſlowly. In time of war, people gain conſiderably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and ſhelves. The Spaniards captured theſe iſlands during the laſt war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Auguſtine, April 7th, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.] Leaving the Bahama and Weſt India iſlands, we ſhall now proceed along the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of America, as far as the 52d deg. of ſouth lat. where the reader, by looking into the map, will perceive the Falkland Iſlands ſituated near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmoſt extremity of South America. Falkland Iſlands were firſt diſcovered by Sir Richard Hawkins, in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins Maidenland, in honour of queen Elizabeth. The preſent Engliſh name Falkland, was probably given them by captain Strong, in 1639, and being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into our maps. They have occaſioned ſome conteſt between Spain and Great Britain, but being of very little worth, ſeem to have been ſilently abandoned by the latter, in 1774, in order to avoid giving umbrage to the Spaniſh court.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 500	between	80 and 91 weſt longitude.	100,000
Breadth 440		25 and 32 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] THIS country, which was ceded by Great Britain to Spain by the late treaty of peace, is bounded by Georgia on the north; by the Miſſiſſippi on the weſt; by the Gulf of Mexico on the ſouth; and by the Bahama Straits on the eaſt.

RIVERS.] Theſe are the Miſſiſſippi, which is one of the fineſt in the world, as well as the largeſt; for, including its turnings and windings, it is ſuppoſed to run a courſe of 4500 miles; but its mouths are in a manner choaked up with ſands and ſhoals, which deny acceſs to veſſels of any conſiderable burden; there being, according to Mitchel's map, only twelve feet water over the bar (captain Pitman ſays ſeventeen) at the principal entrance. Within the bar there is 100 fathom water, and the channel is every where deep, and the current gentle, except at a certain ſeaſon, when like the Nile, it overflows and becomes extremely rapid. It is, except at the entrance already mentioned, every where free from ſhoals and cataracts, and navigable for craft of one kind or other almoſt to its ſource. The Mobille, the Apalachicola,, and St. John's rivers, are alſo large and noble ſtreams.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are St. Bernard's, Aſcenſion, Mobille, Penſacola, Dauphin, Joſeph, Apalaxy, Spiritu Sancto, and Charles Bay.

The

Plate XXV.

SOUTH AMERICA from the best AUTHORITIES
CARIBBEAN SEA
ATLANTIC OCEAN
PACIFIC OCEAN OR SOUTH SEA
SOUTHERN OCEAN
Equinoctial Line
Tropic of Capricorn
TERRA FIRMA
NEW GRENADA
NEW COMANA
GUIANA
AMAZONIA
BRASIL
PERU
CHILI
PARAGUAY
PATAGONIA
Gallipagos Is
Caracas
Quito
Lima
Arica
Potosi
Buenos Ayres
Riv. of Plate
St. Jago
Valpraiso
Coquimbo
Baldivia
Chiloe I.
Straits of Magellan
Falkland Isles
C. Horn
Staten Land
Georgia
Sandwich Land
St. Salvador
Rio Janeiro
Olinda or Pernambuco
R. Amazon
Paramaribo
Cayenne
Juan Fernandes I.
Easter I.
I. Trinidad
Fernando Noronho
West Longitude from London
East Longitude
Meridian of London

SOUTH AMERICA from the best AUTHORITIES.
Equinoctial Line
St. Louis de Maranham
Pt. Mocoripe
Seara
Ft. St. Lucar
Fernando Noronho
Cape St. Roque
Ric Grande
Paraiba
Olinda or Pernambuco
C. St. Augustin
Seregeppi del Rey
St. Salvador
of All Saints
Porto Seguro
Baxos Abrothos
R. Doce
Spiritu Santo
C. St. Thomas
I. Trinidad
Easter I.
Saxemburg I.
SOUTHERN
Meridian of London
West Longitude from London
East Longitude

The chief capes are, Cape Blanco, Samblas, Anclote, and Cape Florida, at the extremity of the peninſula.

AIR AND CLIMATE.] Very various accounts have been given of theſe particulars in this country; but that the air of Florida is pure and wholeſome, appears from the ſize, vigour, and longevity of the Floridian Indians, who, in theſe reſpects, far exceed their more ſouthern neighbours, the Mexicans.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, AND FACE OF THE COUNTRY.} Eaſt Florida, near the ſea, and 40 miles back, is flat and ſandy. But even the country round St. Auguſtine, in all appearance the worſt in the province, is far from being unfruitful; it produces two crops of Indian corn a-year; the garden vegetables are in great perfection; the orange and lemon-trees grow here, without cultivation, to a large ſize, and produce better fruit than in Spain and Portugal. The inward country towards the hills is extremely rich and fertile, produce ſpontaneouſly the fruits, vegetables, and gums, that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas, and is likewiſe favourable to the rearing of European productions.

This country alſo produces rice, indigo, ambergriſe, cochineal, amethyſts, turquoiſes, lapis lazuli, and other precious ſtones; copper, quickſilver, pit-coal, and iron-ore: pearls are alſo found on the coaſt of Florida: mahogany grows on the ſouthern parts of the peninſula, but inferior in ſize and quality to that of Jamaica. The animal creation are here ſo numerous, that you may purchaſe a good ſaddle horſe, in exchange for goods of five ſhillings value prime coſt; and there are inſtances of horſes being exchanged for a hatchet per head.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The chief town in Weſt Florida is Penſacola, N. lat. 30-22. W. long. 87-20. which is ſituated within the bay of the ſame name, on a ſandy ſhore that can only be approached by ſmall veſſels. The road is, however, one of the beſt in all the Gulf of Mexico, in which veſſels may lie in ſafety againſt every kind of wind, being ſurrounded by land on every ſide.

St. Auguſtine, the capital of Eaſt Florida, N. lat. 29-45. W. long. 11-12. runs along the ſhore, and is of an oblong form, divided by four regular ſtreets, croſſing each other at right angles. The town is fortified with baſtions, and incloſed with a ditch. It is likewiſe defended by a caſtle, which is called Fort St. John; and the whole is furniſhed with cannon. At the entrance into the harbour are the north and ſouth breakers, which form two channels, whoſe bars, or low tides, have eight feet water.

NEW MEXICO, INCLUDING CALIFORNIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 2000	between	94 and 126 weſt longitude.	600,000.
Breadth 1000		23 and 43 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by unknown lands on the north; by Louiſiana on the eaſt; by Old Mexico, and the Pacific Ocean on the ſouth; and by the ſame ocean on the weſt.

Diviſions.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief Towns.
North-east division	New Mexico Proper	SANTA FE, W. lon. 104. N. lat. 36.
South-east division	Apacheira —	St. Antonio.
South division	Sonora — —	Tuape.
Western division	California, a peninsula	St. Juan.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] These countries lying for the most part within the temperate zone, have a climate in many places extremely agreeable, and a soil productive of every thing, either for profit or delight. In California, however, they experience great heats in the summer, particularly towards the sea-coast; but in the inland country the climate is more temperate, and in winter even cold.

FACE AND PRODUCE OF THE COUNTRY.] The natural history of these countries, is as yet in its infancy. The Spaniards themselves know little of the matter, and the little they know they are unwilling to communicate. Their authority being on a precarious footing with the Indians, who here at least still preserve their independence; they are jealous of discovering the natural advantages of these countries, which might be an inducement to the other nations of Europe to form settlements there. It is certain, however, that in general the provinces of New Mexico and California are extremely beautiful and pleasant; the face of the country is agreeably varied with plains, intersected by rivers, and adorned with gentle eminences covered with varied kinds of trees, some producing excellent fruit. With respect to the value of the gold mines in these countries, nothing positive can be asserted. They have undoubtedly enough of natural productions, to render them advantageous colonies to any but the Spaniards. In California there falls in the morning a great quantity of dew, which, settling on the rose leaves, candies, and becomes hard like manna, having all the sweetness of refined sugar, without its whiteness. There is also another very singular natural production; in the heart of the country there are plains of salt, quite firm, and clear as crystal, which, considering the vast quantities of fish found on its coasts, might render it an invaluable acquisition to any industrious nation.

INHABITANTS, HISTORY, GOVERNMENT, RELIGION, AND COMMERCE.] The Spanish settlements here are comparatively weak; though they are increasing every day, in proportion as new mines are discovered. The inhabitants are chiefly Indians whom the Spanish missionaries have in many places brought over to Christianity, to a civilized life, and to raise corn and wine, which they now export pretty largely to Old Mexico. California was discovered by Cortez, the great conqueror of Mexico; our famous navigator, Sir Francis Drake, took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king, or chief in the whole country. This title, however, the government of Great Britain have not hitherto attempted to vindicate, though California is admirably situated for trade, and on its coast has a pearl fishery of great value. The inhabitants and government here do not materially differ from those of Old Mexico.

OLD MEXICO, OR NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	2000	between	83 and 110 west longitude.	318,000.
Breadth	600		8 and 30 north latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by New Mexico, or Granada, on the north; by the gulf of Mexico, on the north-east; by Terra Firma, on the south-east; by the Pacific Ocean, on the south-west; containing three audiences, viz.

Audiences.	Chief Towns.
1. Galicia, or Guadalajarra -	Guadalajarra.
2. Mexico Proper - - -	MEXICO, W. long. 100. N. lat. 19-54. Acapulco. Vera Cruz.
3. Guatimala - - - -	Guatimala *.

BAYS.] On the North Sea are the gulfs or bays of Mexico, Campeachy, Vera Cruz, and Honduras; in the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, are the bays Micoya and Amapalla, Acapulco and Salinas.

CAPES.] These are the Cape Sardo, Cape St. Martin, Cape Cornducedo, Cape Catoche, Cape Honduras, Cape Cameron, and Cape Gracias Dios, in the North Sea.

Cape Marques, Cape Spirito Sancto, Cape Corientes, Cape Gallero, Cape Blanco, Cape Burica, Cape Prucreos, and Cape Mala, in the South Sea.

WINDS.] In the Gulf of Mexico, and the adjacent seas, there are strong north winds from October to March, about the full and change of the moon. Trade winds prevail every where at a distance from land within the tropics. Near the coast, in the South Sea, they have periodical winds, viz. Monsoons, and sea and land breezes, as in Asia.

SOIL AND CLIMATE.] Mexico lying for the most part within the torrid zone, is excessively hot, and on the eastern coast, where the land is low, marshy, and constantly flooded in the rainy seasons, it is likewise extremely unwholesome. The inland country, however, assumes a better aspect, and the air is of a milder temperament; on the western side, the land is not so low as on the eastern, much better in quality, and full of plantations. The soil of Mexico in general is of a good variety, and would not refuse any sort of grain, were the industry of the inhabitants to correspond with their natural advantages.

PRODUCE.] Mexico, like all the tropical countries, is rather more abundant in fruits than in grain. Pine-apples, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and cocoa-nuts are here in the greatest plenty and perfection. Mexico produces also a prodigious quantity of sugar, especi-

* This city was swallowed up by an earthquake on the 7th of June, 1773, when eight thousand families instantly perished. New Guatimala is built at some distance, and is well inhabited.

ally towards the gulph of Mexico, and the province of Guaxaca and Guatimala, so that here are more sugar-mills than in any other part of Spanish America. Cedar-trees and logwood flourish much about the Bays of Campeachy and Honduras. The maho-tree also, which hath a bark with such strong fibres, as they twist and make ropes of. They have also a tree, which is called light wood, being as light as a cork, of which they make floats to carry their merchandize on the sea-coasts. But what is considered as the chief glory of this country, and what first induced the Spaniards to form settlements upon it, are the mines of gold and silver. The chief mines of gold are in Veragua and New Granada, bordering upon Darien and Terra Firma. Those of silver, which are much more rich, as well as numerous, are found in several parts, but in none so much as in the province of Mexico. The mines of both kinds are always found in the most barren and mountainous part of the country; nature making amends in one respect for her defects in another. The working of the gold and silver mines depends on the same principles. When the ore is dug out, compounded of several heterogeneous substances, mixed with the precious metals, it is broken into small pieces by a mill, and afterwards washed, by which means it is disengaged from the earth, and other soft bodies which clung to it. Then it is mixed with mercury, which, of all substances, has the strongest attraction for gold, and likewise a stronger attraction for silver than the other substances which are united with it in the ore. By means of the mercury, therefore, the gold and silver are first separated from the heterogeneous matter, and then by straining and evaporation, they are disunited from the mercury itself. Of the gold and silver, which the mines of Mexico afford, great things have been said. Those who have enquired most into this subject, compute the revenues of Mexico at twenty-four millions of our money; and it is well known that this, with the other provinces of Spanish America, supply the whole world with silver. The other articles next in importance to gold and silver, are the cochineal and cocoa. After much dispute concerning the nature of the former, it seems at last agreed, that it is of the animal kind, and of the species of the gall insects. It adheres to the plant called opuntia, and sucks the juice of the fruit, which is of a crimson colour. It is from this juice that the cochineal derives its value, which consists in dying all sorts of the finest scarlet, crimson, and purple. It is also used in medicine as a sudorific, and as a cordial; and it is computed that the Spaniards annually export no less than nine hundred thousand pounds weight of this commodity, to answer the purposes of medicine and dying. The cocoa, of which chocolate is made, is the next considerable article in the natural history and commerce of Mexico. It grows on a tree of a middling size, which bears a pod about the size and shape of a cucumber, containing the cocoa. The Spanish commerce in this article is immense; and such is the internal consumption, as well as the external call for it, that a small garden of cocoas is said to produce to the owner twenty thousand crowns a-year. At home it makes a principal part of their diet, and is found wholesome, nutritious, and suitable to the climate. This country likewise produces silks, but not so much as makes any remarkable part of their export. Cotton is here in great abundance, and on account of its lightness is the common wear of the inhabitants.

POPULATION, INHABITANTS, GOVERNMENT, AND MANNERS.} We shall place these heads under one point of view, because the reader will soon be sensible they are very nearly connected. We have already described the original inhabitants of Mexico, and the conquest of that country by the Spaniards. The present inhabitants may be divided into

Whites, Indians, and Negroes. The Whites are either born in Old Spain, or they are Creoles, i. e. natives of Spanish America. The former are chiefly employed in government or trade, and have nearly the same character with the Spaniards in Europe; only a still more considerable portion of pride; for they consider themselves as entitled to every high distinction as natives of Europe, and look upon the other inhabitants as many degrees beneath them. The Creoles have all the bad qualities of the Spaniards, from whom they are descended, without that courage, firmness, and patience, which make the praise-worthy part of the Spanish character. Naturally weak and effeminate, they dedicate the greatest part of their lives to loitering and inactive pleasures. Luxurious without variety or elegance, and expensive with great parade, and little convenience, their general character is no more than a grave and specious insignificance. From idleness and constitution their whole business is amour and intrigue; and their ladies of consequence are not at all distinguished for their chastity and domestic virtues. The Indians, who, notwithstanding the devastations of the first invaders, remain in great numbers, are become, by continual oppression and indignity, a dejected, timorous, and miserable race of mortals. The blacks here, like those in other parts of the world, are stubborn, hardy, and as well adapted for the gross slavery they endure, as any human creatures can be.

Such is the general character of the inhabitants, not only in Mexico, but the greatest part of Spanish America. The civil government is administered by tribunals, called Audiences, which bear a resemblance to the old parliaments in France. In these courts the viceroy of the king of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power which his Catholic majesty has in his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The greatness of the viceroy's office is diminished by the shortness of its duration. For as jealousy is the leading feature of Spanish politics, in whatever regards America, no officer is allowed to maintain his power for more than three years, which, no doubt, may have a good effect in securing the authority of the crown of Spain, but is attended with unhappy consequences to the miserable inhabitants, who become a prey to every new governor. The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico, and it has been computed, that priests, monks, and nuns of all orders, make upwards of a fifth of all the white inhabitants, both here and in the other parts of Spanish America. It is impossible indeed to find a richer field, or one more peculiarly adapted to ecclesiastics, in any part of the world. The people are superstitious, ignorant, rich, lazy, and licentious: with such materials to work upon, it is not remarkable, that the church should enjoy one-fourth of the revenues of the whole kingdom. It is more surprising that it has not a half.

Commerce, cities, and shipping.] The trade of Mexico consists of three great branches, which extend over the whole known world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, situated on the Gulf of Mexico, or North Sea; with the East Indies, by Acupulco on the South Sea, and with South America, by the same port. These two sea ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco are wonderfully well situated for the commercial purposes to which they are applied. It is by means of the former, that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world, and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessaries which Europe affords to her, and which the indolence of her inhabitants will never permit them to acquire for themselves. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ships annually arrive about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of every commodity and manufacture of Europe, and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little more than wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the King, is all the advantage which Spain derives from her American commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Sometime in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sail to the Havannah, in the isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma, by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected, and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea-port, by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America, and the East-Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, which makes the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrives here. The cargoes of these ships (for the convoy, though in an under-hand manner, likewise carries goods) consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the East. At the same time the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is not computed to bring less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the galleon's cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galleon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver and such European goods as have been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial states, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the Flota, so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the same indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galleon. Notwithstanding what has been said of Vera Cruz, and Acapulco; the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the centre of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negotiated. The East-India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, all pass through this city. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is deposited, and here are wrought all the utensils and ornaments in plate which are every year sent into Europe. The city itself breathes the air of the highest magnificence, and according to the best accounts contains about 80,000 inhabitants.

SPANISH DOMINIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1400 Breadth 700	between	60 and 82 west longitude. the equator, and 12 north lat.	700,000.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the North Sea, part of the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the same sea and Surinam, on the east; by the country of the Amazons and Peru, on the south; and by the Pacific Ocean and New Spain, on the west.

Divisions.	Subdivisions.	Chief towns.
The northern division contains the provinces of	1. Terra Firma Proper, or Darien -	Porto Bello PANAMA, W. lon. 80-21. N. lat. 8-47.
	2. Carthagena -	Carthagena
	3. St. Martha -	St. Martha
	4. Rio de la Hacha	Rio de la Hacha
	5. Venezuela -	Venezuela
	6. Comana -	Comana
	7. New Andalusia, or Paria	St. Thomas
The southern division contains the provinces of	1. New Granada -	Santa Fé de Bagota
	2. Popayan -	Popayan

BAYS, CAPES, &c.] The Isthmus of Darien, or Terra Firma Proper, joins North and South America. A line drawn from Porto Bello in the North, to Panama in the South Sea, or rather a little west of these two towns, is the proper limit between North and South America, and here the isthmus or neck of land, is only 60 miles over. The principal rivers are the Rio Grande, Darien, Chagre, and the Oronoque.

The principal bays in Terra Firma are, the bay of Panama, and the bay of St. Michael's, in the South Sea; the bay of Porto Bello, the gulf of Darien, Sino bay, Carthagena bay and harbour, the gulf of Venezuela, the bay of Maracaibo, the gulf of Triesto, the bay of Guaira, the bay of Curiaco, and the gulf of Paria, or Andalusia, in the North Sea.

The chief capes are, Samblas point, Point Canoa, Cape del Agua, Swart point, Cape de Vela, Cape Conquibacoa, Cape Cabelo, Cape Blanco, Cape Galera, Cape Three Points, and Cape Nassau; all on the north shore of Terra Firma.

CLIMATE.] The climate here, particularly in the northern divisions, is extremely hot; and it was found by Ulloa, that the heat of the warmest day in Paris is continual in Carthagena; the excessive heats raise the vapour of the ſea, which is precipitated in ſuch rains as ſeem to threaten a general deluge. Great part of the country, therefore, is almoſt continually flooded; and this, together with the exceſſive heat, ſo impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholeſome.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] The ſoil of this country, like that of the greater part of South America, is wonderfully rich and fruitful. It is impoſſible to view, without admiration, the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriancy of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This, however, only applies to the inland country, for the coaſts are generally barren ſand, and incapable of bearing any ſpecies of grain. The trees, moſt remarkable for their dimenſions, are the caobo, the cedar, the maria, and balſam tree. The manchineel tree is particularly remarkable. It bears a fruit reſembling an apple, but which, under this ſpecious appearance, contains the moſt ſubtle poiſon, againſt which common oil is found to be the beſt antidote. The malignity of this tree is ſuch, that if a perſon only ſleeps under it, he finds his body all ſwelled, and racked with the ſevereſt tortures. The beaſts, from inſtinct, always avoid it. The Habella de Carthagena is the fruit of a ſpecies of willow, and contains a kernel reſembling an almond, but leſs white, and extremely bitter. This kernel is found to be an excellent and never-failing remedy for the bite of the moſt venomous vipers and ſerpents, which are very frequent all over this country. There were formerly rich mines of gold here, which are now in a great meaſure exhauſted. The ſilver, iron, and copper mines have been ſince opened, and the inhabitants find emeralds, ſapphires, and other precious ſtones.

ANIMALS.] In treating of North America, we have taken notice of many of the animals that are found in the ſouthern parts; it is therefore unneceſſary to repeat them hereafter. Among thoſe peculiar to this country, the moſt remarkable is the Sloth, or, as it is called by way of deriſion, the Swift Peter. It bears a reſemblance to an ordinary monkey in ſhape and ſize, but is of a moſt wretched appearance, with its bare hams and feet, and its ſkin all over corrugated. He ſtands in no need of either chain or hutch, never ſtirring unleſs compelled by hunger; and he is ſaid to be ſeveral minutes in moving one of his legs, nor will blows make him mend his pace. When he moves, every effort is attended with ſuch a plaintive, and at the ſame time, ſo diſagreeable a cry, as at once produces pity and diſguſt. In this cry conſiſts the whole defence of this wretched animal. For on the firſt hoſtile approach it is natural for him to be in motion, which is always accompanied with diſguſtful howlings, ſo that his purſuer flies much more ſpeedily in his turn, to be beyond the reach of this horrid noiſe. When this animal finds no wild fruits on the ground, he looks out with a great deal of pains for a tree well loaded, which he aſcends with a world of uneaſineſs, moving, and crying, and ſtopping by turns. At length having mounted, he plucks off all the fruit, and throws it on the ground, to ſave himſelf ſuch another troubleſome journey; and rather than be fatigued with coming down the tree, he gathers himſelf in a bunch, and with a ſhriek drops to the ground.

The monkies in theſe countries are very numerous; they keep together 20 or 30 in company, rambling over the woods, leaping from tree to tree, and if they meet with a ſingle perſon, he is in danger of being torn to pieces by them; at leaſt they chatter, and make a frightful noiſe, throwing things at him; they hang themſelves by the tail, on the boughs, and ſeem to threaten him all the way he paſſes: but where two or three people are together, they uſually ſcamper away.

NATIVES.] Besides the Indians in this country, who fall under our general description of the Americans, there is another species, of a fair complexion, delicate habit, and of a smaller stature than the ordinary Indians. Their dispositions too are more soft and effeminate; but what principally distinguishes them is their large, weak blue eyes, which, unable to bear the light of the sun, see best by moon light, and from which they are therefore called Moon-eyed Indians.

INHABITANTS, COMMERCE, AND CHIEF TOWNS.} We have already mentioned how this country fell into the hands of the Spaniards. The inhabitants therefore do not materially differ from those of Mexico. To what we have observed, with regard to this country, it is only necessary to add, that the original inhabitants of Spain are variously intermixed with the negroes and Indians. These intermixtures form various gradations, which are carefully distinguished from each other, because every person expects to be regarded, in proportion as a greater share of the Spanish blood runs in his veins. The first distinction, arising from the intermarriage of the whites with the negroes, is that of the mulattoes, which is well known. Next to these are the Tercerones, produced from a white and a mulatto. From the intermarriage with these and the whites, arise the Quarterones, who, though still near the former are disgraced with a tint of the negro blood. But the produce of these and the whites are the Quinterones, who, which is very remarkable, are not to be distinguisted from the real Spaniards, but by being of a still fairer complexion. The same gradations are formed in a contrary order, by the intermixture of the mulattoes and the negroes; and besides these, there are a thousand others, hardly distinguishable by the natives themselves. The commerce of this country is chiefly carried on from the ports of Panama, Carthagena, and Porto Bello; which are three of the most considerable cities in Spanish America; and each containing several thousand inhabitants. Here there are annual fairs for American, Indian, and European commodities. Among the natural merchandise of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for these, and who have arrived at wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by fish, particularly the sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks. The government of Terra Firma is on the same footing with that of Mexico.

P E R U.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1800	between	the equator and 25 south latitude.	970,000.
Breadth	500		60 and 81 west longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Terra Firma, on the north; by the mountains, or Cordeleirias des Andes, east; by Chili, south; and by the Pacific Ocean, West.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief towns.
The northern division	Quito —	Quito Payta
The middle division	Lima, or Los Royes	Lima, 76-49 W. lon. 12-11. S. lat. Cusco, and Callao.
The southern division	Los Charcos	Potosi Porco.

Seas, bays, and harbours.] The only sea which borders on Peru, is the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea. The principal bays and harbours are Payta, Malabrigo, Cuanchaco, Cosina, Vermeio, Guara, Callao, the port town to Lima, Ylo, and Arica.

Rivers.] There is a river whose waters are as red as blood. The rivers Granada, or Cagdalena, Oronoque, Amazon, or Plate, rise in the Andes. Many other rivers rise also in the Andes, and fall into the Pacific Ocean, between the equator and eight deg. S. lat.

Petrified waters.] There are some waters, which, in their course, turn whatever they pass over into stone; and here are fountains of liquid matter, called coppey, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose.

Soil and climate.] Though Peru lies within the torrid zone, yet having on one side the South Sea, and on the other the great ridge of the Andes, it is not so stifled with heat, as the other tropical countries. The sky too, which is generally cloudy, shields them from the direct rays of the sun; but what is extremely singular, it never rains in Peru. This defect, however, is sufficiently supplied by a soft kindly dew, which falls gradually every night on the ground, and so refreshes the plants and grass, as to produce in many places the greatest fertility. Along the sea-coast, Peru is generally a dry barren sand, except by the banks of rivers, where it is extremely fertile, as are all the low lands in the inland country.

Animal, vegetable, and mineral productions.} There are many gold mines in the northern part, not far from Lima. Silver too is produced in great abundance in various provinces; but the old mines are constantly decaying, and new ones daily opened. The towns shift with the mines. That of Potosi, when the silver there was found at the easiest expence (for now having gone so deep, it is not so easily brought up) contained 90,000 souls, Spaniards and Indians, of which the latter were six to one. The northern part of Peru produces wine in great plenty. Wool is another article of its produce, and is no less remarkable for its fineness than for the animals on which it grows; these they call lamas and vicunnas. The lama has a small head, in some measure resembling that of a horse and a sheep at the same time. It is about the size of a stag, its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it spits a kind of venomous juice, which inflames the part it falls on. The flesh of the lama is agreeable and salutary, and the animal is not only useful in affording wool and food, but also as a beast of burden. It can endure amazing fatigue, and will travel over the steepest mountains with a burden of 60 or 70 pounds. It feeds very sparingly, and never drinks. The vicunna is smaller and swifter than the lama, and produces wool still finer in quality. In the vicunna too is found the bezoar stones, regarded as a specific against poisons. The next great article in their produce and commerce is the Peruvian bark, known better by the name of Jesuits' bark. The tree which produces this invaluable drug, grows principally in the mountainous part of Peru, and particularly in the province of Quito. The best bark is always produced in the high and rocky grounds; the tree which bears it, is about the size of a cherry tree, and produces a kind of fruit, resembling the almond. But it is only the bark which has those excellent qualities that render it so useful in intermitting fevers, and other disorders to which daily experience extends the application of it. Guinea pepper, or Cayenne pepper, as we call it, is produced in the greatest abundance in the vale of Africa, a district in the southern parts of Peru, from whence they export it annually, to the value of 600,000 crowns. Peru is likewise the only part of Spanish America which produces quicksilver; an article of immense value, considering the various purposes to which it is applied, and especially the purification of gold and silver. The principal mine of this singular metal is at a place called Guancavelica, discovered in 1567, where it is found in a whitish mass resembling brick ill burned. This substance is volatilised by fire, and received in stream by a combination of glass vessels, where it condenses by means of a little water at the bottom of each vessel, and forms a pure heavy liquid.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join these articles here because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire: its situation in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the River Rimac, that the inhabitants like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary; and, besides it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth one and a quarter. It contains about 60,000 inhabitants, of whom the whites amount to a sixth part. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting to seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could justify these accounts is the immense richness and extensive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima, for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleet from Europe, and the East Indies, land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and fertility of the climate of Lima, are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens, and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demoliſhed Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any deſtruction more terrible or perfect, not more than one of three thouſand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he by a providence the moſt ſingular and extraordinary imaginable.—This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houſes in the utmoſt terror and confuſion; the ſea, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, receding to a conſiderable diſtance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its boſom, and immediately all was ſilent; but the ſame wave which deſtroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man ſtood, into which he threw himſelf, and was ſaved. Cuſco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, has already been taken notice of. As it lies in the mountainous country, and at a diſtance from the ſea, it has been long on the decline. But it is ſtill a very conſiderable place, and contains above 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, and very induſtrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have alſo, both here and in Quito, a particular taſte for painting; and their productions in this way, ſome of which have been admired in Italy, are diſperſed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populouſneſs, if not ſuperior to it. It is, like Cuſco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which ſupply the conſumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT.} It would be in vain to pretend ſaying any thing deciſive with regard to the number of inhabitants in Peru. The Spaniards themſelves are remarkable ſilent on this head. It has been gueſſed by ſome writers, that in all Spaniſh America there are about three millions of Spaniards and Creoles of different colours; and undoubtedly the number of Indians is much greater; though neither in any reſpect proportionable to the wealth, fertility, and extent of the country. The manners of the inhabitants do not remarkably differ over the whole Spaniſh dominions. Pride and lazineſs are the two predominant paſſions. It is agreed on by the moſt authentic travellers, that the manners of Old Spain have degenerated in its colonies. The Creoles, and all the other deſcendants of the Spaniards, according to the above diſtinctions, are guilty of many mean and pilfering vices, which a true born Caſtilian could not think of but with deteſtation. This, no doubt, in part ariſes from the contempt in which all but the real natives of Spain are held in the Indies, mankind generally behaving according to the treatment they meet with from others. In Lima the Spaniſh pride has made the greateſt deſcents; and many of the firſt nobility are employed in commerce. It is in this city that the viceroy reſides, whoſe authority extends over all Peru, except Quito, which has lately been detached from it. The viceroy is as abſolute as the king of Spain; but as his territories are ſo extenſive, it is neceſſary that he ſhould part with a ſhare of his authority to the ſeveral audiences or courts eſtabliſhed over the kingdom. There is a treaſury court eſtabliſhed at Lima, for receiving the fifth of the produce of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the king of Spain.

C H I L I.

Situation and Extent.

Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length 1200	between	25 and 45 ſouth latitude	206,000.
Breadth 500		65 and 85 weſt longitude	

Boundaries.] BOUNDED by Peru, on the north; by La Plata, on the eaſt; by Patagonia, on the ſouth; and by the Pacific Ocean on the weſt.

Diviſions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
On the weſt ſide of the Andes	Chili Proper —	St. Jago, W. long. 77. S. lat. 34. Baldivia. Imperial.
On the eaſt ſide of the Andes.	Cuyo, or Cutio	St. John de Frontiera.

Lakes.] The principal lakes are thoſe of Tagatagua near St. Jago, and that of Paren. Beſides which, they have ſeveral ſalt-water lakes, that have a communication with the ſea, part of the year. In ſtormy weather the ſea forces a way through them, and leaves them full of fiſh; but in the hot ſeaſon the water congeals, leaving a cruſt of fine white ſalt a foot thick.

Seas, rivers, bays, and harbours.] The only ſea that borders upon Chili, is that of the Pacific Ocean on the weſt. The principal rivers are the Salado or Salt River, Guaſco, Coquimbo, Chiapa, Bohio, and the Baldivia, all ſcarcely navigable but at their mouths.

The principal bays, or harbours, are Capiapo, Coquimbo, Govanadore, Valpariſo, Iata, Conception, Santa Maria, La Moucha, Baldivia, Brewer's-haven, and Caſtro.

Climate, soil, and produce.] Theſe are not remarkably different from the ſame in Peru; and if there be any difference, it is in favour of Chili. There is indeed no part of the world more favoured than this is, with reſpect to the gifts of nature. For here, not only the tropical fruits, but all ſpecies of grain, of which a conſiderable part is exported, come to great perfection. Their animal productions are the ſame with thoſe of Peru; and they have gold almoſt in every river.

Inhabitants.] This country is very thinly inhabited. The original natives are ſtill in a great meaſure unconquered and uncivilized; and leading a wandering life, attentive to no object but their preſervation from the Spaniſh yoke, are in a very unfavourable condition with regard to population. The Spaniards do not amount to above 20,000; and the Indians, negroes, and mulattoes, are not ſuppoſed to be thrice that number. However, there have lately been ſome formidable inſurrections againſt the Spaniards, by the natives of Chili, which greatly alarmed the Spaniſh court.

Commerce.] The foreign commerce of Chili is entirely confined to Peru, Panama, and ſome parts of Mexico. To the former they export annually corn ſufficient for 60,000 men. Their exports are hemp, which is raiſed in no other part of the South Seas; hides, tallow, and ſalted proviſions; and they receive in return the commodities of Europe and the Eaſt Indies, which are brought to the port of Callao.

PARAGUAY, or LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.	Sq. Miles.
Length	1500	between	12 and 37 south latitude,	1,000,000
Breadth	1000		50 and 75 west longitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia on the north; by Brasil, east; by Patagonia on the south; and by Peru and Chili, west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
East division contains	Paraguay	Assumption
	Parana	St. Anne
	Guaira	Civdad Real
	Uragua	Los Royes
South division	Tucuman	St. Jago
	Rio de la Plata	BUENOS AYRES, W. lon. 57-54. S. lat. 34-35.

BAYS AND LAKES.] The principal bay is that at the mouth of the river La Plata, on which stands the capital city of Buenos Ayres; and Cape St. Antonia, at the entrance of that bay, is the only promontory. This country abounds with lakes, one of which, Casacoroes, is 100 miles long.

RIVERS.] This country, besides an infinite number of small rivers, is watered by three principal ones, the Paragua, Uragua, and Parana, which, united near the sea, form the famous Rio de la Plata, or Plate River, and which annually overflow their banks; and, on their recess, leave them enriched with a slime, that produces the greatest plenty of whatever is committed to it.

AIR, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This vast tract is far from being wholly subdued or planted by the Spaniards. There are many parts in a great degree unknown to them, or to any other people of Europe. The principal province of which we have any knowledge, is that which is called Rio de la Plata, towards the mouth of the above mentioned rivers. This province, with all the adjacent parts, is one continued level, not interrupted by the least hill for several hundred miles every way; extremely fertile, and producing cotton in great quantities; tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paraguay, with a variety of fruits, and prodigious rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that it is said the hides of the beasts are all that is properly bought, the carcase being in a manner given into the bargain. A horse some time ago might be bought for a dollar; and the usual price for a beast, chosen out of the herd of two or three hundred, was only four rials. But, contrary to the general nature of America, this country is destitute of woods. The air is remarkably sweet and serene, and the waters of La Plata are equally pure and wholesome.

FIRST SETTLEMENT, CHIEF CITY, AND COMMERCE.] The Spaniards first discovered this country, by sailing up the river la Plata, in 1515, and founded the town of Buenos Ayres, so called on account of the excellence of the air, on the south side of the river, fifty leagues within the mouth of it, where the river is ſeven leagues broad. This is one of the moſt conſiderable towns in South America, and the only place of traffic to the ſouthward of Braſil. Here we meet with the merchants of Europe and Peru, but no regular fleet comes here, as to the other parts of Spaniſh America; two, or at moſt three, regiſter ſhips, make the whole of their regular intercourſe with Europe. Their returns are very valuable, conſiſting chiefly of the gold and ſilver of Chili and Peru, ſugar and hides. Thoſe who have now and then carried on a contraband trade to this city, have found it more advantageous than any other whatever. The benefit of this contraband is now wholly in the hands of the Portugueſe, who keep magazines for that purpoſe, in ſuch parts of Braſil as lie near this country. The trade of Paraguay, and the manners of the people, are ſo much the ſame with thoſe of the reſt of the Spaniſh colonies in South America, that nothing farther can be ſaid on thoſe articles.

But we cannot quit this country without ſaying ſomething of that extraordinary ſpecies of common wealth, which the Jeſuits erected in the interior parts, and of which theſe crafty prieſts endeavoured to keep all ſtrangers in the dark.

About the middle of the laſt century, thoſe fathers repreſented to the court of Spain, that their want of ſucceſs in their miſſions was owing to the ſcandal which the immorality of the Spaniards never failed to give, and to the hatred which their inſolent behaviour cauſed in the Indians, wherever they came. They inſinuated, that, if it were not for that impediment, the empire of the goſpel might, by their labours, have been extended into the moſt unknown parts of America; and that all thoſe countries might be ſubdued to his Catholic majeſty's obedience, without expence, and without force. This remonſtrance met with ſucceſs; the ſphere of their labours was marked out; and uncontroulled liberty was given to the Jeſuits within theſe limits: and the governors of the adjacent provinces had orders not to interfere, nor to ſuffer any Spaniards to enter this pale, without licence from the fathers. They, on their part, agreed to pay a certain capitation tax, in proportion to their flock; and to ſend a certain number to the king's works whenever they ſhould be demanded, and the miſſions ſhould become populous enough to ſupply them.

On theſe terms the Jeſuits gladly entered upon the ſcene of action, and opened their ſpiritual campaign. They began by gathering together about 50 wandering families, whom they perſuaded to ſettle: and they united them into a little townſhip. This was the ſlight foundation upon which they built a ſuperſtructure, which has amazed the world, and added ſo much power, at the ſame time that it has brought on ſo much envy and jealouſy, to their ſociety. For when they had made this beginning, they laboured with ſuch indefatigable pains, and ſuch maſterly policy, that, by degrees, they mollified the minds of the moſt ſavage nations; fixed the moſt rambling, and ſubdued thoſe to their government, who had long diſdained to ſubmit to the arms of the Spaniards and Portugueſe. They prevailed upon thouſands of various diſperſed tribes to embrace their religion, and theſe ſoon induced others to follow their example, magnifying the peace and tranquillity they enjoyed under the direction of the Fathers.

Our limits do not permit us to trace, with preciſion, all the ſteps which were taken in the accompliſhment of ſo extraordinary a conqueſt over the bodies and minds of ſo many people. The Jeſuits left nothing undone, that could conduce to their remaining in this ſubjection, or that could tend to increaſe their number to the degrees requiſite for a well-ordered and potent ſociety; and it is ſaid that above 340,000 families, ſeveral years ago, were subject to the Jesuits, living in obedience, and an awe bordering upon adoration, yet procured without any violence or constraint: That the Indians were instructed in the military art with the most exact discipline, and could raise 60,000 men well armed; That they lived in towns; they were regularly clad; they laboured in agriculture; they exercised manufactures: some even aspired to the elegant arts; and that nothing could equal the obedience of the people of these missions, except their contentment under it. Some writers have treated the character of these Jesuits with great severity; accusing them of ambition, pride, and of carrying their authority to such an excess, as to cause not only persons of both sexes, but even the magistrates, who are always chosen from among the Indians, to be corrected before them with stripes, and to suffer persons of the highest distinction, within their jurisdiction, to kiss the hem of their garments, as the greatest honour. The priests themselves possessed large property, all manufactures were theirs, the natural produce of the country was brought to them, and the treasures annually remitted to the superior of the order, seemed to evince, that zeal for religion was not the only motive of their forming these missions. The Fathers would not permit any of the inhabitants of Peru, whether Spaniards, Mestizos, or even Indians, to come within their missions in Paraguay. In the year 1757, when part of the territory was ceded by Spain to the court of Portugal, in exchange for Santo Sacrament, to make the Oragua the boundary of their possessions, the Jesuits refused to comply with this division, or to suffer themselves to be transferred from one hand to another, like cattle, without their own consent. And we were informed by authority of the Gazette, that the Indians actually took up arms; but notwithstanding the exactness of their discipline, they were easily, and with considerable slaughter, defeated by the European troops, who were sent to quell them. And, in 1767, the Jesuits were sent out of America, by royal authority, and their late subjects were put upon the same footing with the rest of the inhabitants of the country.

SPANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

CUBA.] The island of Cuba is situated between 19 and 23 degrees north lat. and between 74 and 87 degrees west long. 100 miles to the south of Cape Florida, and 75 north of Jamaica, and is near 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island from east to west; but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America. It produces all commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long-pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastic, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar; but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the same cause that this large island does not produce, including all its commodities, so much for exportation as our small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence; but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated, and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital city of Cuba, and a place of great ſtrength and importance, containing about 2000 houſes, with a great number of convents and churches. It was taken, however, by the courage and perſeverance of the Engliſh troops in the year 1762, but reſtored in the ſubſequent treaty of peace. Beſides theſe, there is likewiſe Comberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a conſiderable town thirty miles eaſt of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, or ST. DOMINGO.] This iſland was at firſt poſſeſſed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the moſt conſiderable part is now in the hands of the French. However, as the Spaniards were the original poſſeſſors, and ſtill continue to have a ſhare in it, Hiſpaniola is commonly regarded as a Spaniſh iſland.

It is ſituated between the 17th and 21ſt degrees north lat. and the 67th and 4th of weſt lon. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto-Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hiſpaniola was firſt diſcovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at leaſt a million. But ſuch was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to ſo infamous a height did they carry their oppreſſion of the poor natives, that they were reduced to ſixty thouſand in the ſpace of fifteen years. The face of the iſland preſents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the ſoil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing ſugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and caſſava root. The European cattle are ſo multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the moſt barren parts of the rocks, they diſcovered formerly ſilver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The north-weſt parts, which are in the poſſeſſion of the French, conſiſt of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vaſt abundance. This indeed is the beſt and moſt fruitful part of the beſt and moſt fertile iſland in the Weſt Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The moſt ancient town in this iſland, and in all the New World, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole iſland is ſometimes named, eſpecially by the French. It is ſituated on a ſpacious harbour, and is a large, well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spaniſh towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mulattoes, Meſtizos' and Negroes.

The French towns are, Cape St. François, the capital, which is neither walled or paled in, and is ſaid to have only two batteries, one at the entrance of the harbour, and the other before the town. It contains about 8000 whites and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of ſize, is a good port, a place of conſiderable trade, and the ſeat of the French government in that iſland. They have two other towns conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and Port Louis.

It is computed that the exports of the French, from the above mentioned places, are not leſs in value than 1,200,000l. They likewiſe carry on a contraband trade with the Spaniards, which is much to their advantage, as they exchange French manufactures for Spaniſh dollars.

In the night between the 22d and 23d of Auguſt, 1791, a moſt alarming inſurrection of the negroes began on the French plantations upon this iſland. A ſcene of the moſt horrid cruelties enſued. In a little time no leſs than one hundred thouſand negroes were in rebellion, and all the manufactories and plantations of more than half the northern province appeared as one general conflagration. The plains and the mountains were filled with carnage and deluged with blood. What the iſſue will be, it is impoſſible to ſay. More than one thouſand of the French have already fallen the victims of this revolt, and perhaps fifteen thouſand negroes will be deſtroyed before order and tranquillity be re-eſtabliſhed. But ſhould they ſucceed in their projects, St. Domingo will become the tomb of fifty thouſand Frenchmen.

Only one reflection we ſhall make from the above facts, which is, that the ſituation of theſe unhappy negroes, men as well as their maſters, and who have as good a right to the liberty of independence as they have, will very much extenuate ſome of the enormities which they committed; enormities which will not bear a mention with thoſe which theſe poor ſufferers, have received from their tyrants in their firſt captivity, and in the ſubſequent hard treatment they have had. Let the proprietors of theſe ſlaves aſk themſelves, whether, had theſe negroes carried them as ſlaves into Africa, they would not have thought it a noble effort to endeavour to regain their freedom? Every man feels the anſwer which would be given; and that anſwer will place the conduct of theſe Africans in its proper point of light.

PORTO RICO.] Situated between 64 and 67 degrees weſt lon. and in 18 degrees north lat. lying between Hiſpaniola and St. Chriſtopher's, is a 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The ſoil is beautifully diverſified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is extremely fertile, producing the ſame fruits as the other iſlands. It is well watered with ſprings and rivers; but the iſland is unhealthful in the rainy ſeaſons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards ſettled here; but there is no longer any conſiderable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, ſtands in a little iſland on the north ſide, forming a capacious harbour, and joined to the chief iſland by a cauſeway, and defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almoſt inacceſſible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than moſt of the Spaniſh towns: becauſe it is the centre of the contraband trade carried on by the Engliſh and French with the king of Spain's ſubjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS.] Situated at the eaſt end of Porto Rico, are extremely ſmall.

TRINIDAD.] Situated between 59 and 62 degrees weſt lon. and in 10 degrees north lat. lies between the iſland of Tobago and the Spaniſh Main; from which it is ſeparated by the Straits of Paria. It is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad; and is an unhealthful, but fruitful ſoil, producing ſugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, variety of fruit, and ſome cotton trees, and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1595, and by the French, 1676, who plundered the iſland, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.] Situated in 64 degrees weſt lon. and 11-30 north lat. ſeparated from the northern coaſt of New Andaluſia, in Terra Firma, by a ſtrait of 24 miles, is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a moſt agreeable proſpect. The iſland abounds in paſture, in maize, and fruit; but there is a ſcarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fiſhery on its coaſt, which is now diſcontinued.

There are many other ſmall iſlands in theſe ſeas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We ſhall, therefore, proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the firſt Spaniſh iſland of any importance is CHILOE, on the coaſt of Chili, which has a governor, and ſome harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.] Lying in 83 degrees weſt lon. and 33 ſouth lat. 300 miles weſt of Chili. This iſland is uninhabited; but having ſome good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the Engliſh cruiſers to touch at, and water; and here they are in no danger of being discovered, unless when, as is generally the case, their arrival in the South Seas, and their motions, have been made known to the Spaniards by our good friends in Brasil. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, until he was discovered by captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had forgotten his native language, and could scarcely be understood, seeming to speak his words by halves. He was dressed in goats' skins, would drink nothing but water, and it was some time before he could relish the ship's victuals. During his abode in this island, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught 30 years after, by lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect, and majestic beards, discovered strong symptoms of antiquity. Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication. But that writer, by the help of these papers and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but those hints, which might give rise to his own celebrated performance.

The other islands that are worth mentioning are, the Gallipago isles, situated 400 miles west of Peru, under the equator; and those in the bay of Panama, called the King's or Pearl Islands.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

CONTAINING BRASIL.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Degrees.
Length	2500	between	the equator and 35 south latitude.
Breadth	700	between	35 and 60 west longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon, and the Atlantic Ocean, on the north; by the same ocean, on the east; by the mouth of the river Plata, south; and by a chain of mountains, which divide it from Paraguay and the county of Amazons, on the west.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Northern division contains the captainships of	Para	Para, or Belim
	Marignan	St. Lewis
	Siara	Siara
	Petagues	St. Lue
	Rio Grande	Tignares
	Payraba	Payraba
	Tamara	Tamara
	Pernambuco	Olinda

Divisions.

Divisions.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Middle division contains the captainships of	Serigippe	Serigippe
	Bahia, or the bay of All Saints	St. Salvador.
	Ilheos	Paya
	Porto Seguro	Porto Seguro
	Spirito Sancto	Spirito Sancto
Southern division contains the captainships of	Rio Janeiro	St. Sebastian
	St. Vincent	St. Vincent
	Del Rey	St. Salvador.

On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions in their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbara, and St. Catherine's.

SEAS, BAYS, HARBOURS, AND CAPES.} The Atlantic Ocean washes the coast of Brasil on the north-east and east, upwards of 3000 miles, forming several fine bays and harbours: as the harbours of Pernambuco, All Saints, Porto Seguro, the port and harbour of Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of St. Gabriel, and the port of St. Salvador, on the north shore of the river La Plata.

The principal capes are, Cape Roque, Cape St. Augustine, Cape Trio, and cape St. Mary, the most southerly promontory of Brasil.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, AIR, CLIMATE AND RIVERS.} The name of Brasil was given to this country, because it was observed to abound with a wood of that name. To the northward of Brasil, which lies almost under the equator, the climate is hot, boisterous, and unwholesome, subject to great rains and variable winds, particularly in the months of March and September, when they have such deluges of rain, with storms and tornadoes, that the country is overflowed. But to the southward, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, there is no part of the world that enjoys a more serene and wholesome air, refreshed with the soft breezes of the ocean on one hand, and the cool breath of the mountains on the other. The land near the coast is in general rather low than high, but exceedingly pleasant, it being interspersed with meadows and woods; but on the west far within land, are mountains from whence issue many noble streams, that fall into the great rivers Amazon and La Plata; others running across the country from east to west till they fall into the Atlantic Ocean, after meliorating the lands which they annually overflow, and turning the sugar-mills belonging to the Portuguese.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] In general the soil is extremely fruitful, producing sugar, which being clayed, is whiter and finer than our muscovado, as we call our unrefined sugar. Also tobacco, hides, indigo, ipecacuanha, balsam of Copaibo, Brasil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind; it has likewise some place in medicine, as a stomachic and restringent.

The animals here are the same as in Peru and Mexico. The produce of the soil was found very sufficient for subsisting the inhabitants, until the mines of gold and diamonds were discovered; these with the sugar plantations, occupy so many hands, that agriculture lies neglected; and, in consequence, Brasil depends upon Europe for its daily food.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The portrait given us of the manners and customs of the Portuguese in America, by the most judicious travellers, is very far from being favourable. They are described as a people, who, while sunk in the most effeminate luxury, practice the most desperate crimes. Of a temper hypocritical and dissembling; of little sincerity in conversation, or honesty in dealing; lazy, proud, and cruel. In their diet penurious: for, like the inhabitants of most southern climates, they are much more fond of shew, state, and attendance, than of the pleasures of free society, and of a good table; yet their feasts, which are seldom made, are sumptuous to extravagance. When they appear abroad, they cause themselves to be carried out in a kind of cotton hammocks, called serpentines, which are borne on the negroes' shoulders, by the help of a bamboo, about twelve or fourteen feet long. Most of these hammocks are blue, and adorned with fringes of the same colour: they have a velvet pillow, and above the head a kind of tester, with curtains; so that the person carried cannot be seen, unless he pleases; but may either lie down or set up, leaning on his pillow. When he has a mind to be seen, he pulls the curtain aside, and salutes his acquaintance whom he meets in the streets; for they take a pride in complimenting each other in their hammocks, and will even hold long conferences in them in the streets; but then the two slaves who carry them, make use of a strong well-made staff, with an iron fork at the upper end, and pointed below with iron: this they stick fast in the ground, and rest the bamboo, to which the hammock is fixed, on two of these, till their master's business or compliment is over. Scarcely any man of fashion, or any lady, will pass the streets without being carried in this manner.

TRADE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Portugal is carried on upon the same exclusive plan on which the several nations of Europe trade with their colonies of America; and it more particularly resembles the Spanish method, in not sending out single ships, as the convenience of the several places, and the judgment of the European merchants, may direct; but by annual fleets, which sail at stated times from Portugal, and compose three floatas, bound to as many ports in Brasil; namely, to Pernambuco, in the northern part; to Rio Janeiro, at the southern extremity; and to the Bay of All Saints, in the middle.

In this last is the capital, which is called St. Salvador, and sometimes the city of Bahia, and where all the fleets rendezvous on their return to Portugal. This city commands a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour. It is built upon a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, and a lake, forming a crescent, investing it almost wholly, so as nearly to join the sea, on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature; and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and, beyond comparison, the most gay and opulent city in all Brasil.

The trade of Brasil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America; they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, and from hence they import between 40 and 50,000 negroes, annually, all of which go into the amount of the cargo of the Brasil fleets for Europe. Of the diamonds there is supposed to be returned to Europe to the amount of 130,000l. This, with the sugar, the tobacco, the hides, and the valuable drugs for medicine and manufactures, may give some idea of the importance of this trade, not only to Portugal, but to all the trading powers of Europe.

The chief commodities the European ships carry thither in return, are not the fiftieth part of the produce of Portuga ; they consist of woollen goods of all kinds from England, France, and Holland; the linens and laces of Holland, France, and Germany; the silks of France and Italy; silk and thread stockings, hats, lead, tin, pewter, iron, copper, and all sorts of utensils wrought in these metals, from England; as well as salt-fish, beef, flour, and cheese. Oil they have from Spain; wine, with some fruit, is nearly all they are supplied with from Portugal. England is at present most interested in the trade of Portugal, both for home consumption, and what they want for the use of the Brasils. However, the French have become very dangerous rivals to us in this, as in many other branches of trade.

Brasil is a very wealthy and flourishing settlement. Their export of sugar, within 40 years, is grown much greater than it was, though anciently it made almost the whole of their exportable produce, and they were without rivals in the trade. Their tobacco is remarkably good, though not raised in such large quantities as in the American colonies. The northern and southern parts of Brasil abound with horned cattle: these are hunted for their hides only, of which no less than 20,000 are sent annually to Europe.

The Portuguese had been long in possession of Brasil before they discovered the treasures of gold and diamonds, which have since made it so considerable. Their fleets rendezvous in the Bay of All Saints, to the amount of 100 sail of large ships, in the month of May or June, and carry to Europe a cargo little inferior in value to the treasures of the Spanish flota and galleons. The gold alone, great part of which is coined in America, amounts to near four millions sterling; but part of this is brought from their colonies in Africa, together with ebony and ivory.

History and government.] This country was first discovered by Americus Vespusio, in 1498, but the Portuguese did not plant it till 1549, when they fixed themselves at the bay of All Saints, and founded the city of St. Salvador. They met with some interruption at first from the court of Spain, who considered the whole continent of South America as belonging to them. However, the affair was at length made up by treaty; and it was agreed that the Portuguese should possess all the country lying between the two great rivers Amazon and Plata, which they still enjoy. The French also made some attempts to plant colonies on this coast, but were driven from thence by the Portuguese, who remained without a rival till the year 1580, when, in the very meridian of prosperity, they were struck by one of those blows which generally decides the fate of kingdoms: Don Sebastian, the king of Portugal, lost his life in an expedition against the Moors in Africa, and by that event the Portuguese lost their liberty, being absorbed into the Spanish dominions.

The Dutch soon after this, having thrown off the Spanish yoke, and being not satisfied with supporting their independency by a successful defensive war; and flushed with the juvenile ardor of a growing commonwealth, pursued the Spaniards into the remotest recesses of their extensive territories, and grew rich, powerful, and terrible, by the spoils of their former masters. They particularly attacked the possessions of the Portuguese; they took almost all their fortresses in the East Indies, and then turned their arms upon Brasil, where they took seven of the captainships, or provinces; and would have subdued the whole colony, had not their career been stopped by the archbishop, at the head of his monks, and a few scattered forces. The Dutch were, about the year 1654, entirely driven out of Brasil; but their West India company still continuing their pretensions to this country, and harassing the Portuguese at sea, the latter agreed, in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold, to relinquish their interest in that country, which was accepted; and the Portuguese have remained

Plate XXVI.

CHART OF THE WORLD ON MERCATORS PROJECTION
NORTHERN OCEAN
PACIFIC
OCEAN OR
SOUTH SEA
ATLANTIC
OCEAN
INDIAN
OCEAN
SOUTHERN
OCEAN
Equinoctial Line
Equator
Tropic of Cancer
Tropic of Capricorn
Arctic Circle
Antarctic Circle
NORTH AMERICA
SOUTH AMERICA
EUROPE
ASIA
AFRICA
NEW HOLLAND
Baffins Bay
Hudsons Bay
GREENLAND
Iceland
Spitzbergen
Nova Zembla
SIBERIA
RUSSIAN EMPIRE
TARTARY
Sea of Okotsk
Kamtschatka
Behrings Str.
Icy C.
C. North
C.P. of Wales
Prince Williams Land
Labrador or New Britain
Canada
Quebec
Newfoundland
Nova Scotia
New York
United States
Charleston
Bermudas
Louisiana
New Mexico
California
Drakes Harb.
Nootka Sound
Q. Charlottes Isles
Bristol B.
Behrings I.
Fox Islands
Gulf of Mexico
Cuba
Hispaniola
Jamaica
Antigua
Barbadoes
West Indies
Terra Firma
Guayana
R. Amazon
Peru
Lima
Brasil
C. St. Roque
St. Salvador
S. Sebastian
Paraguay
Buenos Ayres
R. de la Plate
Chili
Patagonia
Juan Fernandes
C. Blanco
Falkland I.
Georgia
Terra del Fuego
C. Horn
Gallapagos
Owhyhee where C. Cook was killed
Ld. Mulgraves Range
N. Hebrides
N. Caledonia
Friendly Is.
Society Is.
Otaheite
Norfolk I.
New Zealand
C. Farewell
Davis Straits
Ireland
Portugal
Spain
France
Germany
Poland
Hungary
Turkey
Denmark
Baltic
Petersburg
Moskow
Lapland
Archangel
North C.
Black S.
Caspian S.
Mediterranean Sea
Azores
Madeira
Feroe Is.
Barbary
Morocco
Tripoli
Egypt
Great Desert
Senegambia
Nubia
Guinea
Benin
G. of Guinea
ETHIOPIA
Congo
Benguela
Zanguebar
Caffraria
Hottentots
C. of Good Hope
Madagascar
Cape Verd Is.
Ascension I.
St. Helena
Saxemburg I.
Goughs I.
P. Edwards Is.
Desert Is.
Kerguelens Land
Sandwich Land
Arabia
Persia
Arabian Sea
Bombay
Hindoostan
Delhi
Calcutta
Bay of Bengal
Madras
Ceylon
Tobolsk
Irkutsk
L. Baikal
Tungusi
Samojedi
Yakutsk
Astracan
L. Aral
Thibet
China
Pekin
Nankin
Canton
Japan Isles
China Sea
Philippine Isles
Ladrone Is.
Pelew Is.
Malacca
Sumatra
Java
Borneo
Moluccas
New Guinea
Solomons Isles
Endeavour Str.
New South Wales
Capricorn
I. Howe
Botany B.
Van Diemens Land
18o Longitude West 15o from London. 12o
9o Longitude East 12o from London. 15o

B. Baker sculp.

Plate XXII.

CHART
OF THE
WORLD
ON
MERCATORS PROJECTION
NORTHERN OCEAN
OCEAN
Icy C.
C. North
East C.
Behrings Str.
C. P. of Wales
Arctic Circle
Mc. Kenzies R.
Kamtschatka
Cooks R.
Mt. St. Elias
Slave L.
Bristol B.
Alaska
Kishtac
Behrings I.
Fox Islands
Q. Charlottes Isles
Nootka Sound
NORTH AMERICA
West R.
PACIFIC
Drakes Harb.
New Mexico
Louisiana
California
Tropic of Cancer
Mexico
Owhyhee
where C. Cook was killed
Ld. Mulgraves
Range
OCEAN OR
Equinoctial Line
N. Hebrides
Society Is.
Otaheite
N. Caledonia
Friendly Is.
Tropic of Capricorn
Norfolk I.
SOUTH SEA
New Zealand
Owatoi Noss
Lena
Yakutsk
Okotsk
Sea of Okotsk
Kamtschatka
Amur R.
Japan Isles
Philippine Isles
Ladrone Is.
Pelew Is.
Gallap
Moluccas
New Guinea
Solomon Isles
Endeavours Str.
New South Wales
NEW HOLLAND
Capricorn
L. Howes I.
Botany B.
Van Diemens Land
180 Longitude West 150 from London. 120
120 from London. 150

remained in peaceable possession of all Brasil from that time, till about the end of the year 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress called St. Sacrament; but, by the treaty of peace, it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

THE possessions of the French on the continent of America are at present inconsiderable. They were masters of Canada and Louisiana; but they have now lost all footing in North America; though on the southern continent they have still a settlement, which is called

CAYENNE, or Equinoctial France.

IT is situated between the equator and fifth degree of north latitude, and between the 50th and 55th of west longitude. It extends 240 miles, along the coast of Guiana, and near 300 miles within land; bounded by Surinam, on the north; by the Atlantic Ocean, east; by Amazonia, south; and by Guiana, west. The chief town is Caen. All the coast is very low, but within land there are fine hills very proper for settlements; the French have, however, not yet extended them so far as they might; but they raise the same commodities which they have from the West-India Islands, and in no inconsiderable quantity. They have also taken possession of the Island of Cayenne, on this coast, at the mouth of the river of that name, which is about 45 miles in circumference. The island is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, the French have here some settlements, which raise sugar and coffee.

French Islands in America.

THE French were among the last nations who made settlements in the West Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

They are sensible, that as the mother country is ultimately to receive all the benefit of their labours and acquisitions, the prosperity of their plantations must be derived from the attention with which they are regarded at home. For this reason, the plantations are particularly under the care and inspection of the council of commerce, a board composed of twelve of the most considerable officers of the nation, assisted by the deputies of all the considerable trading towns and cities in France, who are chosen out of the richest and most intelligent of their traders, and paid a handsome salary for their attendance at Paris, from the funds of their respective cities. This council sits once a week, when the deputies propose plans for redressing

dreſſing every grievance in trade, for raiſing the branches that are fallen, for extending new ones, for ſupporting the old, and, in fine, for every thing that may improve the working, or promote the vent, of their manufactures, according to their own lights, or to the inſtructions of their conſtituents. When they are ſatisfied of the uſefulneſs of any regulation, they propoſe it to the council, where their report is always received with particular attention. An edict to inforce it accordingly iſſues, and which is executed with punctuality.

The government of their ſeveral colonies, is in a governor, an intendant, and a council. The government is inveſted with a great deal of power; which, however, is checked by the intendant, who has the care of whatever relates to the revenue; and on the ſide of the people, it is checked by the council, whoſe office is to ſee that the people are not oppreſſed by the one, nor defrauded by the other; and they are all checked by the conſtant and jealous eye which the government at home keeps over them: the officers of all the ports of France being charged, under the ſevereſt penalties, to interrogate all captains of ſhips coming from the colonies, concerning the reception they met with at the ports to which they ſailed? how juſtice was adminiſtered to them? what charges they were made liable to, and of what kinds?

That the colonies may be as little burthened as poſſible, and that the governor may have leſs temptation to ſtir up troubleſome intrigues, or favour factions in his government, his ſalary is paid by the nation; he has no perquiſites, and is ſtrictly forbidden to carry on any trade, or to have any plantations in the iſlands or on the continent; or any intereſt whatever, in goods or lands, within his government, except the houſe he lives in, and a garden for his convenience and recreation. All the other officers are paid out of the revenues of the mother country. The fortifications are built and repaired, and the ſoldiers paid out of the ſame funds. In general, their colonies pay no taxes; but when, upon any extraordinary emergency, taxes have been raiſed, they were very moderate. The duties upon the export of their produce at the Weſt India iſlands, or at its import into France, are next to nothing; in both places hardly making two per cent. What commodities go to them pay no duties at all. Their other regulations reſpecting the judges of the admiralty, law-ſuits, recovery of debts, lenity to ſuch as have ſuffered by earthquakes, hurricanes, or bad ſeaſons; the peopling their colonies, number of whites to be employed by the planters, and, laſtly, the management of negroes, cannot be ſufficiently admired; and would probably be of great uſe, were ſome of them introduced into our ſugar iſlands, where proper regulations in many reſpects ſeem to be much wanted.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spaniſh iſland of Hiſpaniola, or St. Domingo, as the moſt important and valuable of all their foreign ſettlements, and which they poſſeſs through the indolence of the Spaniards on that iſland, or the partiality of their court to the French nation. We ſhall next proceed to the iſlands of which the French have the ſole poſſeſſion, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO] Which is ſituated between 14 and 15 deg. of north lat. and in 61 degrees weſt long. lying about 40 leagues north-weſt of Barbadoes; is about 60 miles in length, and half as much in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out, on every ſide, a number of agreeable and uſeful rivers, which adorn and enrich this iſland in a high degree. The produce of the ſoil is ſugar, cotton, indigo, ginger,

ger, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands. But sugar is here, as in all the West-India islands, the principal commodity, of which they export a considerable quantity annually. Martinico is the residence of the governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious, and so well fortified, that they used to bid defiance to the English, who, in vain, often attempted this place. However, in the war of 1756, when the British arms were triumphant in every quarter of the globe, this island was added to the British empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALOUPE.] So called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situated in 16 degrees north lat. and in 62 west long. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almost as much south of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad—It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry-boat. Its soil is equally fertile with that of Martinico, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, &c. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar almost incredible. Like Martinico, it was formerly attacked by the English, who gave up the attempt; but in 1759, it was reduced by the British arms, and was given back at the peace of 1763.

ST. LUCIA.] Situated in 14 deg. north lat. and in 61 deg. west long. 80 miles north-west of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr, St. Lucia. The English first settled on this island, in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to settle these islands; which by the treaty of peace, were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich. It produces excellent timber, and abounds in pleasant rivers, and well situated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783.

TOBAGO.] This island is situated 11 degrees odd min. north lat. 120 miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish main. It is about 32 miles in length, and nine in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West-India islands. It has a fruitful soil capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and creeks are so disposed as to be very commodious for all kinds of shipping. The value and importance of this island appear from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; but by the treaty of peace, in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain. In June 1781, it was taken by the French; and was ceded to them by the treaty of 1782.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE, } Are three ſmall iſlands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Chriſtopher's, and of no great conſequence to the French, except in time of war, when they gave ſhelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy our Weſt-India trade. The former was given to Sweden in 1785.

The ſmall iſlands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, ſituated near Newfoundland, have been already mentioned in our account of that iſland, p. 866.

DUTCH AMERICA,

Containing SURINAM, on the Continent of SOUTH AMERICA.

AFTER the Portugueſe had diſpoſſeſſed the Dutch of Braſil in the manner we have ſeen; and after they had been entirely removed out of North America, they were obliged to conſole themſelves with their rich poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, and to ſit down content in the Weſt with Surinam; a country once in the poſſeſſion of England, but of no great value whilſt we had it, and which we ceded to them in exchange for New York; with two or three ſmall and barren iſlands in the north ſea, not far from the Spaniſh main.

Dutch Guiana is ſituated between five and ſeven degrees north lat. extending 100 miles along the coaſt from the mouth of the river Oronoque, north, to the river Maroni, or French Guiana, ſouth. The climate of this country is generally reckoned unwholeſome; and a conſiderable part of the coaſt is low, and covered with water. The chief ſettlement is at Surinam, a town built on a river of the ſame name; and the Dutch have extended their plantations 30 leagues above the mouth of this river. This is one of the richeſt and moſt valuable colonies belonging to the United Provinces; but it is in a leſs proſperous ſituation than it was ſome years ſince, owing, among other cauſes, to the wars they have been engaged in with their fugitive negroes, whom they have treated with great barbarity, and who are become ſo numerous, having increaſed from year to year, that they have formed a kind of colony in the woods, which are almoſt inacceſſible, along the rivers of Surinam, Saramaca, and Copename, and are become very formidable enemies to their former maſters. Under the command of chiefs, whom they have elected among themſelves, they have cultivated lands for their ſubſiſtence, and making frequent incurſions into the neighbouring plantations, revenge themſelves upon their old oppreſſors. The chief trade of Surinam conſiſts in ſugar, a great deal of cotton, coffee of an excellent kind, tobacco, flax, ſkins, aud ſome valuable dying drugs. They trade with the North American colonies, who bring hither horſes, live cattle, and proviſions; and take home a large quantity of molaſſes.

Connected with Surinam, we ſhall mention the two Dutch colonies of Demerary and Iſſequibo on the Spaniſh main, which ſurrendered to the Engliſh, in the year 1781, and were repreſented as a very valuable acquiſition, which would produce more revenue to the crown than all the Britiſh Weſt-India iſlands united. But the report was either not believed or ſlighted, for the colonies were left defenceleſs, and ſoon were retaken by a French frigate.

Dr. Bancroft obſerves, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddiſh-brown aboriginal natives of America. The promiſcuous intercourſe of theſe different people has likewiſe generated ſeveral intermediate caſts, whoſe colours immutably depend on their degree of conſanguinity to either Whites, Indians, or Negroes. Theſe are divided into Mulattoes, Tercerones, Quarterones, and Quinterones, with ſeveral intermediate ſubdiviſions, proceeding from their retrogade intercourſe. There are ſo great a number of birds, of various ſpecies, and remarkable for the beauty of their plumage, in Guiana, that ſeveral perſons in this colony have employed themſelves advantageouſly, with their ſlaves and dependents, in killing and preſerving birds for the cabinets of naturaliſts in different parts of Europe. The torporific eel is found in the rivers of Guiana, which, when touched either by the hand, or by a rod of iron, gold, ſilver, copper, or by a ſtick of ſome particular kinds of heavy American wood, communicates a ſhock perfectly reſembling that of electricity. There are an immenſe number and variety of ſnakes in this country, and which form one of its principal inconveniences. A ſnake was killed ſome years ſince, on a plantation which had belonged to Peter Amyatt, Eſq. which was upwards of thirty-three feet in length, and in the largeſt place near the middle was three feet in circumference. It had a broad head, large prominent eyes, and a very wide mouth, in which was a double row of teeth. Among the animals of Dutch Guiana, is the Laubba, which is peculiar to this country. It is a ſmall amphibious creature, about the ſize of a pig four months old, covered with fine ſhort hair; and its fleſh, by the Europeans who reſide here, is preferred to all other kinds of meat.

DUTCH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. EUSTATIUS, or EUSTATIA, } SITUATED in 17° 29′ N. lat. 63° 10′ W. long. and three leagues north weſt of St. Chriſtophers, is only a mountain, about 29 miles in compaſs, riſing out of the ſea like a pyramid, and almoſt round. But though ſo ſmall, and inconveniently laid out by nature, the induſtry of the Dutch has made it to turn to very good account, and it is ſaid to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The ſides of the mountains are laid in very pretty ſettlements; but they have neither ſprings nor rivers. They raiſe here ſugar and tobacco; and this iſland, as well as Curaſſou, is engaged in the Spaniſh contraband trade, for which, however, it is not ſo well ſituated; and it has drawn the ſame advantage from its conſtant neutrality. But when hoſtilities were commenced by Great Britain againſt Holland, admiral Rodney was ſent with a conſiderable land and ſea force againſt St. Euſtatius, which, being incapable of any defence, ſurrendered at diſcretion, on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiſcated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconſiſtent with the humanity and generoſity by which the Engliſh nation were formerly characteriſed. The reaſon aſſigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Euſtatius had aſſiſted the revolted colonies with naval and other ſtores. But on the 27th of November, the ſame year, St. Euſtatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the marquis de Bouille, though their force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSO.] Situated in 12 degrees north lat. 9 or 10 leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is 30 miles long, and 10 broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for this island is not only barren, and dependent upon the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America; yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest, and by far one of the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock. Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar: it has, besides, good salt-works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch at this island for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda costas to take these vessels; for they are not only stout ships, with a number of guns but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the station of the owner, supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime cost. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property. Besides this, there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Curassou has numerous warehouses, always full of the commodities of Europe and the East Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, silks, ribbands, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West India, which is also their African Company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the Negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods; and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of warehouses and mercer's shops, with every thing that has grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined or in bars, cacao, vanilla, Jesuits' bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curassou, even in times of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than 500,000l. but in the time of war the profit is still greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the West Indies; it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition to destroy one another. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarcely any other market from whence they can be well supplied, either with ſlaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which the Engliſh bring from the continent of North America, or which is exported from Ireland; ſo that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this iſland flouriſhes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American ſettlements was originally carried on by the Weſt-India Company alone: at preſent, ſuch ſhips as go upon that trade pay two and a half per cent. for their licencies; the company, however, reſerve to themſelves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American iſlands.

The other iſlands, Bonaire and Aruba, are inconſiderable in themſelves, and ſhould be regarded as appendages to Curaſſou, for which they are chiefly employed in raiſing cattle and other proviſions.

The ſmall iſlands of Saba and St. Martin's, ſituated at no great diſtance from St. Euſtatia, hardly deſerve to be mentioned: they were both captured by admiral Rodney and general Vaughan, at the time when St. Euſtatia ſurrendered to the arms of Great Britain; but were afterwards retaken by the French.

DANISH ISLANDS IN AMERICA.

ST. THOMAS.] AN inconſiderable member of the Caribbees, ſituated in 64 degrees weſt long. and 18 north lat. about 15 miles in circumference, and has a ſafe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, OR SANTA CRUZ.] Another ſmall and unhealthy iſland, lying about five leagues eaſt of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadeſt. Theſe iſlands, ſo long as they remained in the hands of the Daniſh Weſt-India company, were ill managed, and of little conſequence to the Danes; but that wiſe and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's ſtock, and laid the trade open; and ſince that time the iſland of St. Thomas has been ſo greatly improved, that it is ſaid to produce upwards of 3000 hogſheads of ſugar of 1000 weight each, and others of the Weſt-India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war privateers bring in their prizes here for ſale: and a great many veſſels trade from hence along the Spaniſh main, and return with money, in ſpecie or bars, and valuable merchandiſe. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect deſert a few years ſince, it is beginning to ſettle faſt; ſeveral perſons from the Engliſh iſlands, ſome of them of very great wealth, have gone to ſettle there, and have received very great encouragement to do ſo. But, indeed, theſe two nations, the Dutch and the Danes, hardly deſerve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their poſſeſſions there being ſo inconſiderable; and yet the Dutch are ſaid to make their ſhare of them worth at leaſt 600,000l. a year.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been confiderably augmented by the late difcoveries of the Ruffians, and ftill more by thofe that have been made by Britifh navigators in the prefent reign, which have been numerous and important; and of thefe difcoveries we fhall therefore give a compendious account.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

THIS confifts of feveral groups of iflands, which are fituated between the eaftern coaft of Kamtfchatka, and the weftern coaft of the continent of America *. Mr. Muller divides thefe iflands into four principal groups, the firft two of which are ftyled the Aleutian iflands. The firft group, which is called by fome of the iflanders Safignan, comprehends, 1. Beering's Ifland; 2. Copper Ifland; 3. Otma; 4. Samyra, or Shemyia; 5. Anakta. The fecond group is called Khao, and comprizes eight iflands, viz. 1. Immak; 2. Kifka; 3. Tchetchia; 4. Ava; 5. Kavia; 6. Tfchangulek; 7. Ulagama; 8. Amtfchidga. The third general name is Negho, and comprehends the iflands known to the Ruffians under the name of Andreanofffki Oftrova; fixteen of which are mentioned under the following names: 1. Amatkinak; 2. Ulak; 3. Unalga; 4. Navotfha; 5. Unga; 6. Anagin; 7. Kagulak; 8. Illafk, or Illak; 9. Takavanga, upon which is a volcano; 10. Kanaga, which has alfo a volcano; 11. Leg; 12. Sketfhuna; 13. Tagaloon; 14. Gorleoi; 15. Otchu; 16. Amla. The fourth group is called Kavalang, and comprehends fixteen iflands; which are called by the Ruffians Lyffic Oftrova, or the *Fox Iflands*; and which are named, 1. Amuchta; 2. Tfchigama; 3. Tfchegula; 4. Uniftra; 5. Ulaga; 6. Tauagulana; 7. Kagamin; 8. Kigalga; 9. Skelmaga; 10. Umnak; 11. Agun-Alafhfka; 12. Unimma; 13. Uligan; 14. Anturo-Leiffume; 15. Semidit; 16. Senagak.

Some of thefe iflands are only inhabited occafionally, and for fome months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who conftantly refide in them. Copper Ifland receives its name from the copper which the fea throws upon its coafts. The inhabitants of thefe iflands are in general of a fhort ftature, with ftrong and robuft limbs, but free and fupple. They have lank black hair, and little beard, flattifh faces, and fair fkins. They are for the moft part well made, and of ftrong conftitutions, fuitable to the boifterous climate of their ifles. The inhabitants of the Aleutian ifles live

* Mr. Coxe obferves, that "the firft project for making difcoveries in that tempeftuous fea which lies between Kamtfchatka and America, was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expence of the crown; but when it was difcovered, that the iflands of the fea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in fimilar expeditions; and, within a period of ten years, more important difcoveries were made by thefe individuals, at their own private coft, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown The inveftigation of ufeful knowledge has alfo been greatly encouraged by the prefent emprefs of Ruffia; and the moft diftant parts of her vaft dominions, and other countries and iflands, have been explored, at her expence, by perfons of abilities and learning, in confequence of which confiderable difcoveries have been made.

upon roots which grow wild, and sea animals. They do not employ themselves in catching fish, though the rivers abound with all kinds of salmon, and the sea with turbot. Their clothes are made of the skins of birds, and of sea-otters.

The Fox islands are so called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap and a fur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird-skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps, they place a small board like a skreen, adorned with the jaw-bones of sea-bears, and ornamented with glass beads, which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing parties they use a much more shewy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw. But if at any time they choose to dress their victuals, they make use of a hollow stone; having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay. They then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who, in case of an attack, or defence, mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particular when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who sing and dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea side, and, whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings: but, when they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury, or even a suspicion only, rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair, and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

THE DISCOVERY OF AN INLAND SEA CONTAINING A GREAT NUMBER OF ISLANDS IN NORTH AMERICA.

FROM the obſervations made by captain Cook on the inhabitants of the Weſtern parts of America, about the latitude of 64° north, it appeared that a ſtrong ſimilarity appeared between them and the Eſquimaux on the eaſtern coaſt. Hence it was even then conjectured that a communication by ſea exiſted between the eaſtern and weſtern ſides of that continent.

In this part of America, however, a moſt ſurpriſing diſcovery has lately been made, which, when properly authenticated, cannot fail to be of the utmoſt utility, not only to ſcience in general, but to the commercial and political intereſts of mankind; not to ſay that it will undoubtedly contribute, by giving an opportunity for the advancement of civilization, to their moral intereſts alſo. This though not made by captain Cook himſelf, took place in conſequence of his diſcoveries on the north-weſt continent of America. In theſe parts he found that ſuch quantities of valuable furs might be purchaſed from the inhabitants, as promiſed to be a very valuable article of commerce, provided any regular connection could be eſtabliſhed between that part of the world and the Britiſh ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies. This taſk was quickly undertaken by ſome ſpirited adventurers, who unluckily found themſelves oppoſed both by friends and foes, viz. the Eaſt India Company, and the Spaniards; the former pretending that they had no right to diſpoſe of furs in the Eaſt Indies, and the latter, that they had none to bring them from the weſtern coaſt of America. By one Mr. Etches, who fitted out ſhips for this purpoſe, it was diſcovered, that all the weſtern coaſt of America, from lat. 48° to 57° north, was no continued tract of land, but a chain of iſlands which had never been explored, and that theſe concealed the entrance to a vaſt inland ſea, like the Baltic or Miditerranean in Europe, and which ſeems likewiſe to be full of iſlands *. Among theſe, Mr. Etches' ſhip, the Princeſs Royal, penetrated ſeveral hundred leagues in the north eaſt direction, till they came within 200 leagues of Hudſon's Bay; but as the intention of their voyage was merely commercial, they had not time fully to explore the Archipelago, juſt mentioned, nor did they arrive at the termination of this new mediterranean ſea. From what they really did diſcover, however, it is probably that there may this way be a communication with Hudſon's Bay, in which caſe, the north-weſt paſſage to the Eaſt-Indies will be found through ſeas much more navigable than thoſe in which it has hitherto been attempted. The iſlands, which they explored, were all inhabited by tribes of Indians, who appeared very friendly, and well diſpoſed to carry on a commerce. Of theſe iſlands upwards of fifty were viſited, and we are informed that ſome ſhips are now fitting out at one of the ports of England for the ſame place, ſo that further diſcoveries may ſoon be expected.

* In our map of North America, an iſland is laid down at the entrance of the river of the weſt north latitude 45° and weſt longitude 130° the place where this diſcovery is ſaid to have been made.

THE

The PELEW ISLANDS.

THE exiftence and fituation of thefe iflands were probably known to the Spaniards at a diftant period; but from a report among the neighbouring iflands, of their being inhabited by a favage race of Cannibals, it appears, that there had never been the leaft communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope Packet (belonging to the Eaft India Company) was wrecked on one of them, in Auguft, 1783. From the accounts given of thefe iflands, by captain Wilfon, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are fituated between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of eaft longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a NE. and SW. direction; they are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce fugar-cane, yams, cocoa-nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges and lemons; and the furrounding feas abound with the fineft and greateft variety of fifh.

The natives of thefe iflands are a ftout, well-made people above the middle ftature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is underftood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two fmall aprons, one behind, and one before, made of the hufks of the cocoa nut dyed with different fhades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is abfolute, but his power is exercifed more with the mildnefs of a father than a fovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour; he occafionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or chiefs, and confers a fingular honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members of which are diftinguifhed by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea which the account publifhed by captain Wilfon gives us of thefe iflanders, is that of a people who, though naturally ignorant of the arts and fciences, and living in the fimpleft ftate of nature, yet poffefs all that genuine politenefs, that delicacy, and chaftity of intercourfe between the fexes, that refpect for perfonal property that fubordination to government, and thofe habits of induftry, which are fo rarely united, in the more civilized focieties of modern times.

It appears, that when the Englifh were thrown on one of thefe iflands, they were received by the natives with the greateft humanity and hofpitality; and till their departure, experienced the utmoft courtefy and attention. "They felt our people were diftreffed, and in confequence "wifhed they fhould fhare whatever they had to give. It was not that "worldly munificence that beftows and fpreads it favours with a diftant "eye to retribution. It was the pure emotion of native benevolence. It "was the love of man to man. It was a fcene that pictures human na-"ture in triumphant colouring, and whilft their liberality gratified the "fenfe, their virtue ftruck the heart."

The MARQUESAS ISLANDS,

ARE five in number, firft difcovered by Quiros, in 1595; and their fituation better afcertained by captain Cook, in 1774. St. Dominica is the largeft, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and clothing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the same as the Society Isles.

OTAHEITE, or King George's Island.

THIS island was discovered by Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin*, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is situated between the 17th degree 28 min. and the 17th degree 53 min. south latitude; and between the 149th degree 11 min. and the 149th degree 39 minutes west long. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form, joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks, which form several excellent bays and harbours, where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary, for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle

* The Dolphin was sent out, under the command of captain Wallis, with the Swallow, commanded by captain Carteret, at the expence of the British government, in August, 1766, in order to make discoveries in the southern hemisphere. These vessels proceeded together, till they came within sight of the South Sea, at the western entrance of the Strait of Magellan, and from thence returned by different routes to England. On the 6th of June, 1767, captain Wallis discovered an island, about four miles long, and three wide, to which he gave the name of *Whitsun-Island*, it being discovered on Whitsun-eve. Its latitude is 19° 26′ S. and its longitude 137° 56′ W. The next day he discovered another island, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Island*. The inhabitants of this island, captain Wallis says, were of a middling stature, dark complexion, with long black hair, which hung loose over their shoulders. The men were well made, and the women handsome. Their clothing was a kind of coarse cloth or matting, which was fastened about their middle, and seemed capable of being brought up round their shoulders. This island is about six miles long, and one mile wide, and lies in latitude 19° 18′ S. longitude 138° 4′ W. In the space of a few days after, he also discovered several other small islands, to which he gave the names of *Egmont Island, Gloucester Island, Cumberland Island, Prince William Henry's Island*, and *Osnaburgh Island*.

On the 19th of the same month he discovered the island of Otaheite; and, after he had quitted that island, he discovered, on the 28th of July, 1767, another island about six miles long, which he called *Sir Charles Saunders's Island*; and on the 30th of the same month, another about ten miles long, and four broad, which he called *Lord Howe's Island*. After having discovered some other small islands, one of which was named *Wallis's Island*, he arrived at Batavia on the 30th of November, at the Cape of Good Hope on the 4th of February, 1768, and his ship anchored safely in the Downs, on the 20th of May following.

Captain Carteret, in the Swallow, after he had parted with captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, having passed through the Strait of Magellan, and made some stay at the island of Masafuero, he discovered, on the 2d of July, 1767, an island about five miles in circumference, to which he gave the name of *Pitcairn's Island*. It lies in latitude 25° 2′ S. longitude 133° 21′ W. and about a thousand leagues to the westward of the continent of America. The 11th of the same month he discovered another small island, to which he gave the name of *the Bishop of Osnaburgh's Island*. The next day, he discovered two other small islands, which he called *the Duke of Gloucester's Islands*. The following month he discovered a cluster of small islands, to which he gave the name of *Queen Charlotte's Islands*, and also three others, which he named *Gower's Island, Simpson's Island*, and *Carteret's Island*. On the 24th of the same month, he discovered *Sir Charles Hardy's Island*, which lies in latitude 4° 50′ S. and the next day *Winchelsea's Island*, which is distant about ten leagues in the direction of S. by E. He afterwards discovered several other islands, and proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived in March, 1769.

of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkable rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low land that lies between the ridges and the sea, is in few places more than a mile and a half broad; and this, together with some of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited. Captain Wallis made some stay at this island; and it was afterwards visited again by captain Cook in the Endeavour, in April, 1769. That commander was accompanied by Joseph Banks, Esq. now Sir Joseph Banks, and Dr. Solander; and those gentlemen, together with the captain, made a very accurate survey of the island.

Some parts of the island of Otaheite are very populous; and captain Cook was of opinion, that the number of inhabitants on the whole island amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, strong, well-limbed, and finely shaped: the women are of an inferior size, but handsome, and very amorous, and indeed generally somewhat licentious. Their clothing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds: and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread-fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit. Their houses, those which are of a middling size, are of an oblong square, about 24 feet long, and eleven wide, with a shelving roof supported on three rows of posts, parallel to each other, one row on each side, and one in the middle. The utmost height within is about nine feet, and the caves on each side reach to within about three feet and a half from the ground. All the rest is open, no part being inclosed with a wall. The roof is thatched with palm-leaves, and the floor covered some inches deep with soft hay, over which they lay mats; and upon these they sit in the day, and sleep in the night. They have no tools among them made of metal; and those they use are made of stone, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otaheite are remarkable for their cleanliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running water three times every day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels. There are no tame animals on the island but hogs, dogs and poultry, and the only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, and a few other birds, rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the most excellent fish.

In other countries, the men cut their hair short, and the women pride themselves on its length: but here the women always cut it short round their ears, and the men (except the fishers, who are almost continually in the water) suffer it to spread over their shoulders, or tie it up in a bunch on the top. They have the custom of discolouring the skin, by pricking it with a small instrument, the teeth of which are dipped into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, and this is called tattowing. This is performed upon the youth of both sexes, when they are about twelve or fourteen years of age, on several parts of the body, and in various figures. Their principal manufacture is their cloth, of which there are three kinds, made of the bark of three different kinds of trees. The finest and whitest is made of the Chinese paper mulberry tree; and this is chiefly worn by the principal people. Another considerable manufacture is matting, some of which is finer, and in every respect better than any we have in Europe. The coarser sort serves them to sleep upon, and the finer to wear in wet weather. They are likewise very dexterous in making wicker work;

their baskets are of a thousand different patterns, and many of them exceedingly neat. The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one supreme Deity, but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate Deities; they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations, under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made upon the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations.

THE SOCIETY ISLANDS.

OF the several islands so called, and which were discovered by captain Cook*, in the year 1769, the principal are HUAHEINE, ULITEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. HUAHEINE is about 31 leagues to the north-west

* At the close of the year 1767, it was resolved, by the Royal Society, that it would be proper to send persons into some part of the South Sea, to observe a transit of the planet Venus over the Sun's disk, which, according to astronomical calculation, would happen in the year 1769: and that the islands called Marquesas de Mendoza, or those of Rotterdam, or Amsterdam, were the properest places then known for making such observations. In consequence of these resolutions, it was recommended to his majesty, in a memorial from the society, dated February, 1768, that he would be pleased to order such an observation to be made; upon which his majesty signified to the Lords commissioners of the admiralty his pleasure, that a ship should be provided to carry such observers as the society should think fit to the South Seas; and accordingly a bark, of three hundred and seventy tons, was prepared for that purpose. It was named the Endeavour, and commanded by captain James Cook, who was soon after, by the Royal Sociey, appointed, with Mr. Charles Green, a gentleman who had been long assistant to Dr. Bradley, at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich, to observe the transit. But while this vessel was getting ready for her expedition, Captain Wallis returned; and it having been recommended to him by Lord Morton, when he went out, to fix on a proper place for this astronomical observation, he, by letter, dated on board the Dolphin, the 18th of May, 1768, the day before he landed at Hastings, mentioned Port Royal harbour, in the island of Otaheite: the Royal Society, therefore, by letter, dated the beginning of June, in answer to an application from the Admiralty, to be informed whither they would have their observers sent, made choice of that place. Captain Cook set sail from Plymouth, in the Endeavour, on the 26th of August, 1768. He was accompanied in his voyage by Joseph Banks, Esq. and Dr. Solander. They made no discovery till they got within the tropic, where they fell in with Lagoon Island. Two Groups, Bird Island, and Chain Island; and they arrived at Otaheite on the 13th of April, 1769. During their stay at that island, they had the opportunity of making very accurate inquires relative to its produce and inhabitants; and on the 4th of June, the whole passage of the planet Venus over the sun's disk was observed by them with great advantage. The result of their observations may be found in the Philosophical Transactions. After his departure from Otaheite, captain Cook discovered and visited the Society Islands and Oheteroa, and thence proceeded to the south till he arrived in the latitude of 40 degrees, 22 minutes; longitude 247 degrees, 29 minutes W.; and afterwards made an accurate survey of the coast of New Zealand. In November, he discovered a chain of islands, which he called *Barrier Islands*. He afterwards proceeded to New Holland, and from thence to New Guinea; and in September, 1770, arrived at the island of Savu, from whence

weſt of Otaheite, and its productions are exactly the ſame, but it appears to be a month forwarder. The inhabitants ſeem to be larger made, and

whence he proceeded to Batavia, and from thence round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 12th of June, 1771.

Soon after captain Cook's return home in the Endeavour, it was reſolved to equip two ſhips, in order to make farther diſcoveries in the ſouthern hemiſphere. Accordingly the Reſolution and the Adventure were appointed for that purpoſe; the firſt was commanded by captain Cook, and the latter by captain Tobias Furneaux. They ſailed from Plymouth Sound, on the 13th of July, 1772; and on the 29th of the ſame month, arrived at the iſland of Maderia. From thence they proceeded to the Cape of Good Hope; and in February, 1773, arrived at New Zealand, having ſought in vain for a ſouthern continent. In that month the Reſolution and the Adventure ſeparated, in conſequence of a thick fog, but they joined company again in Queen Charlotte's Sound, on the 18th of May following. In Auguſt they arrived at Otaheite; and in September they diſcovered Harvey's Iſland. On the 2d of October, they came to Middleburgh, one of the Friendly Iſlands; and about the cloſe of that month, the Reſolution and the Adventure were ſeparated, and did not join company any more. Captain Cook, however, proceeded in the Reſolution, in order to make diſcoveries in the ſouthern polar regions, but was ſtopped in his progreſs by the Ice, in the latitude of 71 degrees 10 minutes ſouth; longitude 100 degrees 54 minutes weſt. He then proceeded to Eaſter Iſland, where he arrived in March, 1774, as he did alſo in the ſame month at the Marqueſas Iſlands. He aſterwards diſcovered four iſlands, which he named Palliſer's Iſlands; and again ſteered for Otaheite, where he arrived on the 22d of April, and made ſome ſtay, and alſo viſited the neighbouring iſles. In Auguſt, he came to the New Hebrides, ſome of which were firſt diſcovered by him. After leaving theſe iſlands, he ſteered to the ſouthward a few days, and diſcovered New Caledonia. Having ſurveyed the ſouth-weſt coaſt of this iſland, captain Cook ſteered again for New Zealand, in order to refreſh his crew, and put his ſhip into a condition to encounter the danger attending the navigation in the high ſouthern latitudes. Directing his courſe to the ſouth and eaſt, after leaving New Zealand, till he arrived in the latitude of 55 degrees ſix minutes ſouth, longitude 138 degrees 56 minutes weſt, without meeting with any continent, captain Cook gave up all hopes of diſcovering any in this ocean; and therefore came to a reſolution to ſteer directly for the weſt entrance of the Straits of Magellan, with a view of coaſting and ſurveying the outermoſt or ſouth ſide of Terra del Fuego. Keeping accordingly in about the latitude of 53 or 55 and ſteering nearly eaſt, he arrived off the weſtern mouth of the Straits of Magellan, without meeting with any thing remarkable in his new route. In January, 1775, he diſcovered a large and dreary iſland, to which he gave the name of *South Georgia.* He afterwards diſcovered various capes and elevated ſnow clad coaſts, to the moſt ſouthern part of which he gave the name of the *Southern Thule,* as being the neareſt land to that pole, which has yet been diſcovered. In February, he diſcovered *Sandwich Land,* and ſeveral iſlands covered with ſnow. He then proceeded round the Cape of Good Hope to England, where he arrived on the 30th of July, 1775. Captain Furneaux had returned to England, in the Adventure, a year before, having proceeded home round the Cape of Good Hope without making any remarkable diſcovery. Ten of his men, a boat's crew, had been murdered and eaten by ſome of the ſavages of New Zealand; ſo that this voyage afforded a melancholy proof that cannibals really exiſt; and, indeed, in the courſe of theſe voyages of diſcovery, other evidence appeared of this fact. As to captain Cook, in the courſe of his voyage in the Reſolution, he had made the circuit of the ſouthern ocean, in a high latitude, and had traverſed it in ſuch a manner, as to leave not the leaſt room for the poſſibility of there being a ſouthern continent, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. It deſerves alſo to be remembered, in honour of that able commander, captain Cook, that, with a company of a hundred and eighteen men he performed this voyage of three years and eighteen days, throughout all the climates, from fifty-two degrees north, to ſeventy-one degrees ſouth, with the loſs of only one man by ſickneſs; and this appears, in a conſiderable degree, to have ariſen from the great humanity of the commander, and his uncommon care and attention to adopt every method for preſerving the health of his men.

more ſtout than thoſe of Otaheite. Mr. Banks meaſured one of the men, and found him to be ſix feet three inches and a half high; yet they are ſo indolent, that he could not perſuade one of them to go up to the hills with him; for they ſaid, if they were to attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. The women are fairer than thoſe of Otaheite, and both ſexes appear leſs timid and leſs curious; though in their dreſs, language, and almoſt every other circumſtance, they are the ſame. Their houſes are neat, and they have boat-houſes that are remarkably large. Ulitea is about ſeven or eight leagues to the ſouth-weſtward of Huaheine, and is a much larger iſland, but appears neither ſo fertile nor ſo populous. The principal refreſhments to be procured here are plantains, cocoa nuts, yams, hogs, and fowls; but the two laſt are rather ſcarce. *Otaha* is divided from Ulitea by a ſtrait, that in the narroweſt part is not above two miles broad. This iſland affords two good harbours, and its produce is of the ſame kind as that of the other iſlands. About four leagues to the north-weſt of Otaha lies *Bolabola*, which is ſurrounded by a reef of rocks and ſeveral ſmall iſlands, all of which are no more than eight leagues in compaſs. To theſe iſlands, and thoſe of Marua, which lie about fourteen miles to the weſtward of Bolabola, containing ſix in all, captain Cook gave the name of Society Iſlands.

OHETEROA.

THIS iſland is ſituated in the latitude of 22 deg. 27 min. ſouth, and in the longitude of 150 deg. 47 min. weſt from Greenwich. It is thirteen miles in circuit, and rather high than low, but neither ſo populous nor fertile as ſome of the other iſlands in theſe ſeas. The inhabitants are luſty, and well made, but are rather browner than thoſe of Otaheite. Their principal weapons are long lances made of etoa wood, which is very hard, and ſome of them are near twenty feet long.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

THESE iſlands were ſo named by captain Cook in the year 1773, on account of the friendſhip which appeared to ſubſiſt among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to ſtrangers. Abel Janſen Taſman, an eminent Dutch navigator, firſt touched here in 1643, and gave names to the principal iſlands. Captain Cook laboriouſly explored the whole cluſter, which he found to conſiſt of more than ſixty. The three iſlands which Taſman ſaw he named New Amſterdam, Rotterdam, and Middleburg. The firſt is the largeſt, and extends about 21 miles from eaſt to weſt, and about 13 from north to ſouth. Theſe iſlands are inhabited by a race of Indians, who cultivate the earth with great induſtry. The iſland of Amſterdam is interſected by ſtraight and pleaſant roads, with fruit-trees on each ſide, which provide ſhade from the ſcorching heat of the ſun.

The chief iſlands are Annamooka, Tongataboo, and Eooa. This laſt when viewed from the ſhip at anchor, formed one of the moſt beautiful proſpects in nature; and very different from the others of the Friendly Iſles; which, being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them: whereas here the land riſing gently to a conſiderable height, preſented an extenſive proſpect, where groves of trees are only interſperſed at irregular diſtances, in beautiful diſorder, and all the reſt is covered with graſs, except near the ſhores, where it is entirely covered with fruit and other trees; amongſt which are the habitations of the natives. In order to have a view of as great a part of the iſland as poſſible, captain Cook and ſome of his officers walked up to the higheſt point of it. From this place they had a view of almoſt the whole iſland, which conſiſted of beautiful meadows, of prodigious extent, adorned with tufts of trees, and intermixed with plantations. "While I was ſurveying this delightful proſpect," ſays captain Cook, "I could not help flattering myſelf with the pleaſing idea that ſome future navigator may, from the ſame ſtation, behold theſe meadows ſtocked with cattle, brought to theſe iſlands by the ſhips of England; and that the completion of this ſingle benevolent purpoſe, independent of all other conſiderations, would ſufficiently mark to poſterity, that our voyages had not been uſeleſs to the general intereſts of humanity."

NEW ZEALAND.

THIS country was firſt diſcovered by Taſman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally diſtinguiſhed in our maps and charts, by the name of New Zealand, and was ſuppoſed to be part of a ſouthern continent; but it is now known, from the late diſcoveries of captain Cook, who ſailed round it, to conſiſt of two large iſlands, divided from each other by a ſtrait four or five leagues broad. They are ſituated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees ſouth, and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees eaſt from Greenwich. One of theſe iſlands is for the moſt part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joſeph Banks, and of Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flouriſh here in the utmoſt luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is ſuppoſed, that the winters are milder than thoſe in England, and the ſummers not hotter, though more equally warm; ſo that it is imagined, that if this country were ſettled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate induſtry, be ſoon ſupplied not only with the neceſſaries, but the luxuries of life, in great abundance. Here are foreſts of vaſt extent, filled with very large timber-trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been deſcribed by the naturaliſts. The inhabitants of New Zealand are ſtout and robuſt, and equal in ſtature to the largeſt Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been expoſed to the ſun, and in many not ſo deep; and both ſexes have good features. Their dreſs is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner ſimilar to the inhabitants of Otaheite, which is called tattooing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally ſhown themſelves very hoſtile to the Europeans who have viſited them.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

THIS name was given by captain Cook to a cluſter of iſlands, the moſt northerly of which was ſeen by Quiros, the Spaniſh navigator, in 1606, and by him named Tierra del Eſpiritu Santo. From that time, till captain Cook's voyage in the Endeavour, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called *Terra australis incognita.* But when captain Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the Resolution, he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, he discovered several in the group, which were before unknown. The new Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of 14 deg. 29 min. and 20 deg. 4 min. south; and between 166 deg. 41 min. and 170 deg. 21 min. east longitude. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. Terra del Espiritu Santo, Mallicollo, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whitsuntide, Ambrym, Immer, Appee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Irronan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies New Caledonia, a very large island, first discovered by captain Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth is not considerable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chesnut brown. A few leagues distant, are two small islands called the Island of Pines, and Botany Island.

NEW HOLLAND,

THE largest island in the world, and formerly supposed to be a part of that imaginary continent, called Terra Australis Incognita, lies between 10 deg. 30 min. and 43 deg. south latitude, and between 110 and 153 deg. 30 min. east longitude; extending in all as much as the whole continent of Europe, the eastern coast running no less than 2000 miles in length from north-east to south-west. Its dimensions from east to west have not been so exactly ascertained, as we are obliged to take our information concerning them from the accounts of navigators of different nations, who visited this part of the world at a time when the method of making observations, and finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, was less accurate than it is now. Different parts of the country have been called by the names of these discoverers, as Van Dieman's land, Carpentaria, &c. and though the general appellation of the whole was New Holland, it is now applied by geographers to the north and west parts of the country. The eastern part, called New South Wales, was taken possession of in his majesty's name, by captain Cook, and now forms a part of the British dominions, a colony being very lately formed there chiefly of the convicts sentenced to transportation.

The accounts of the climate and soil of this extensive country, now become an object of importance to Great Britain, are very various, and indeed it cannot be expected otherwise, as different parts have been explored at different times, and at different seasons of the year. In general, however, the relations are by no means favourable; the sea-coast, the only place on which any inhabitants have been discovered, appearing sandy and barren; and as for the inland parts, which might reasonably be supposed more fertile, they are now thought to be wholly uninhabited; but whether this proceeds from the natural sterility of the soil, or the barbarity of the inhabitants, who know not how to cultivate it, is not yet discovered.

One thing we are assured of by all who have ever visited this country, that its coast is surrounded by very dangerous shoals and rocks, so that it is by no means easy to effect a landing upon it. A shoal called Houtman's Abrolhos, or shoal, from Frederick Houtman, commander of a fleet of Dutch Indiamen, in 1618, lies on the western coast, on which commodore Pelsart, a Dutch navigator, was wrecked in 1629. When his ship, the Batavia, having on board 330 men, struck on this shoal, there was no land in sight, excepting some small rocky islands, and one considerably bigger, about three leagues distant. All these were explored in search of fresh water, but none being found, they were obliged to sail in their skiff to the continent, which they soon after discovered. But, on their approach, they found the coast so excessively rocky, that it was impossible to land. Continuing their course northward for two days, they found themselves in 27 degrees of south latitude; but still the shore was so extremely steep, that there was no possibility of approaching it. It presented the same appearance as far north as 24 degrees; but the men being now resolved to get ashore at any rate, six of them who were expert swimmers threw themselves into the sea, and with much ado, got to land. Here they employed themselves in searching for fresh water, but finding none, they were obliged to swim back again to their skiff. Next day they discovered a cape, from the extreme points of which ran a ridge of rocks for about a mile into the sea, with another behind it; but still no passage was found to the continent. Another opening appeared about noon the same day, into which they ventured, though the passage was extremely dangerous, even for a skiff, having only two feet water, with a rugged stony bottom. Here, however, they effected a landing; but though they made the most diligent search for fresh water, they could find neither rivulets, springs, nor even water that could be drank by digging of wells. The shoal on which commodore Pelsart was wrecked, is placed by Dampier in 27 degrees south latitude.

This navigator explored the coast of New Holland in 1688 and 1699. In the last of these voyages he fell in with the land in 26 deg. south latitude; but could not land on account of the steepness of the shore. In 22 deg. 22 min. he found another shoal, which was the first he had met with since leaving the Abrolhos in 27 deg. In 20 deg. 21 min. he fell in with some rocky islands, which, from the nature of the tides, he supposed to extend in a range as far south as Shark's Bay, in 25 deg. and nine or ten leagues in breadth from east to west. In 18 deg. 21 min. he effected a landing, but the shore here, as in all other places visited by this navigator, was excessively rocky at low water, so that it is then impossible to land. At high water, however, the tides rise so high, that boats may get over the rocks to a sandy beach which runs all along the coast.

The southern part of this island, visited by captain Tasman in 1642, was found less difficult of access. He pursued the coast as far south as 44 degrees, where it begins to run to the eastward; and from this time the country appears not to have been visited by any Europeans, till the year 1770, when captain Furneaux, of the Adventure, reached the point we speak of, lying in 43 deg. 17 min. south, 145 deg. 36 min. and by account, 143 deg. 10 min. east from Greenwich. Several islands appeared to the north-west, one of which was named by captain Cook, Eddystone, from its resemblance to the light-house of that name; and he observes that nature ſeen s to have left theſe two rocks for the ſame purpoſe that the Eddyſtone light-houſe was built by man, viz. to give navigators warning of their danger; for they are the conſpicuous ſummits of a ledge of rocks under water, on which the ſea in many places breaks very high. Their ſurface is white with the dung of ſea-fowls, which makes them conſpicuous at a conſiderable diſtance.

This celebrated navigator, captain Cook, ſpent upwards of four months in ſurveying the eaſtern coaſt, the extent of which, as has already been mentioned, is nearly 2000 miles. The bay in which he anchored, from the great quantity of herbs found on ſhore, was called BOTANY BAY, and is the place for which the convicts were originally deſtined; though now they are ſettled in another part of the iſland, about fifteen miles to the northward, named, by captain Cook, Port Jackſon, the principal ſettlement being called SYDNEY COVE.

This was not viſited or explored by captain Cook; it was ſeen at the diſtance of between two and three miles from the coaſt, but had fortune conducted him into the harbour, he would have found it much more worthy of his attention, as a ſeaman, than Botany Bay, where he paſſed a week. From an entrance not more than two miles broad, Port Jackſon gradually extends into a noble and capacious baſon, having ſoundings ſufficient for the largeſt veſſels, and ſpace to accomodate in perfect ſecurity any number that could be aſſembled. It runs chiefly in a weſtern direction about 13 miles into the country, and contains no leſs than 100 ſmall coves formed by narrow necks of land, whoſe projections afford ſhelter from the winds.

SYDNEY COVE lies on the ſouth ſide of the harbour, between five and ſix miles from the entrance. The neck of land that forms this cove is moſtly covered with wood, yet ſo rocky, that it is not eaſy to comprehend how the trees could have found ſufficient nouriſhment to bring them to ſo conſiderable a magnitude. The ſoil in other parts of the coaſt immediately about Port Jackſon, is of various qualities. This neck of land, which divides the ſouth end of the harbour from the ſea, is chiefly ſand. Between Sydney Cove and Botany Bay, the firſt ſpace is occupied by a wood, in ſome parts a mile and a half, in others three miles broad. Beyond that is a kind of heath, poor, ſandy, and full of ſwamps; but, as far as the eye can reach to the weſtward, the country is one continued wood.

The name of Cumberland county was given by the government to this part of the territory. It is above 50 miles in length, and thirty broad. The boundaries fixed for Cumberland county were, on the weſt, Caermarthen and Lanſdown Hills; on the north, the northern parts of Broken Bay; and to the ſouthward, the ſouthern parts of Botany Bay. Thus including completely theſe three principal bays, and leaving the chief place of ſettlement at Sydney Cove, nearly in the centre.

At the very firſt landing of Governor Philip on the ſhore of Botany Bay, an interview took place with the natives. They were all armed; but on ſeeing the governor approach with ſigns of friendſhip, alone and unarmed, they readily returned his confidence by laying down their arms.

They were perfectly devoid of clothing, yet ſeemed fond of ornaments, putting the beads and red baize that were given them on their heads or necks, and appearing pleaſed to wear them.

The different coves of Port Jackſon were examined with all expedition, and the preference was given to one which had the fineſt ſpring of water; and in which ſhips can anchor ſo cloſe to the ſhore, that at a very ſmall expence quays may be conſtructed, at which the largeſt veſſels may unload.

After they had all landed at Sydney Cove, a plan was laid down for building a town, according to which were traced out the principal ſtreets, the governor's houſe, main-guard, hoſpital, church, ſtore-houſes, and barracks. In ſome parts of this ſpace, temporary barracks are erected, but no permanent building will be allowed, except in conformity to the plan laid down. Should the town be farther extended in future, the form of other ſtreets are alſo marked out, in ſuch a manner as to enſure a free circulation of air. The principal ſtreets, according to this deſign, will be 200 feet wide.

The climate at Sydney Cove is conſidered, on the whole, as equal to the fineſt in Europe. The rains are never of long duration, and there are ſeldom any fogs. The ſoil, though in general light, and rather ſandy in this part, is full as good as uſually is found ſo near the ſea-ſide. All the plants and fruit-trees brought from Brazil and the Cape, which were not damaged in the paſſage, thrive exceedingly; and vegerables have now become plentiful, both the European ſorts, and ſuch as are peculiar to New South Wales.

The natives of New Holland, in general, ſeem to have no great averſion to the new ſettlers; the only acts of hoſtility they ever committed were on account of their occupying the fiſhing-grounds which the New Hollanders juſtly ſuppoſed to belong to themſelves. They appear, however, to be in too ſavage a ſtate to be capable as yet of deriving any inſtruction from their new neighbours. They are ſo ignorant of agriculture, that it ſeems moſt probable, they do not even know the uſe of corn, and therefore, perhaps more from ignorance than malice, ſet fire to that which the coloniſts had raiſed for their own uſe. To avoid ſuch diſagreeable incidents, a new ſettlement was begun on a ſmall uninhabited iſland, named *Norfolk Iſland*, lying in ſouth latitude 29°, and eaſt long. 168°. 10. at the diſtance of 1200 miles from New Holland. The party ſent out to form this ſettlement conſiſted only of 26 perſons, who took poſſeſſion on the 14th of February, 1788. This ſettlement was found ſo eligible, that, in October, 1788, another party was ſent thither, ſo that the new colony, at the time the laſt advices were received, conſiſted of 44 men and 16 women; who being ſupplied with 18 months proviſions, will probably be able to cultivate the ſoil in ſuch a manner, as to enable them to form a granary, which will put thoſe who are ſettled on New Holland, entirely out of danger from their barbarous neighbours.

For a more particular account of this new ſettlement, we refer our readers to the Voyage of Governor Philip to Botany Bay, publiſhed by Stockdale.

NEW GUINEA,

TILL the late diſcoveries, was thought to be the north-coaſt of an extenſive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but captain Cook diſcovered a ſtrait between them, which runs north-eaſt, through which he ſailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow iſland, extending north-eaſt, from the ſecond degree of ſouth latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees eaſt longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country conſiſts of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interfperfed with groves of cocoa-nut trees, plantains, bread-fruit, and moft of the trees, fhrubs, and plants, that are found in the other South fea iflands. It affords from the fea a variety of delightful profpects. The inhabitants make nearly the fame appearance as the New Hollanders on the other fide the ftraits.

To the north of New Guinea is NEW BRITAIN, which is fituated in the 4th degree of fouth latitude, and 152 deg. 19 min. eaft longitude from Greenwich. It was fuppofed to be part of an imaginary continent till capt. Dampier found it to be an ifland, and failed through a ftrait which divides it from New Guinea. Capt. Carteret, in his voyage round the world, in 1767, found it was of much lefs extent than it was till then imagined to be, by failing through another ftrait to the north, which feparates it from a long ifland, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and ftately trees. To the eaftward of New Britain, and in both the above ftraits, are many iflands, moft of which are faid to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa-nut trees.

NEW IRELAND extends in length, from the north-eaft to the fouth-eaft, about two hundred and feventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolly headed like the negroes of Guinea, but have not their flat nofes and thick lips. North-weftward of New Ireland a clufter of iflands was feen by capt. Carteret, lying very near each other, and fuppofed to confift of twenty or thirty in number. One of thefe, which is of very confiderable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; but the reft of the clufter received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

BESIDES the voyages of difcovery already mentioned, another voyage was performed by capt. Cook and capt. Clerke, in the Refolution and Difcovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in fearch of a north-weft paffage between the continents of Afia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In their courfe they difcovered two iflands, which capt. Cook called Prince Edward's Ifles. The largeft about 15 leagues in circuit, is in latitude 46-53 fouth; longitude 37-46; the other about 9 leagues in circuit, lat. 46-40, and long. 38-8, E. both barren and almoft covered with fnow. From New Holland they failed to New Zealand, and afterwards they vifited the Friendly and the Society Ifles. In January, 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Ifles, which are twelve in number, and are fituated between 22 deg. 15 min. and 18 deg. 53 min. N. latitude. The air of thefe iflands is in general falubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the fame with thofe of the Society and Friendly Ifles. The inhabitants are of a middle fize, ftout, and well made, and their complexions in general a brown olive. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. 44 deg. 33 min. north, and long. 235 deg. 36 min. eaft, they faw part of the American continent, bearing north-eaft. They afterwards difcovered King George's Sound, which is fituated on the north-weft coaft of America, and is extenfive: that part of it where the fhips under the command of captain Cook anchored, is in lat. 49 deg. 36 min. north, and long. 233 deg. 28 min. eaft. The whole found is furrounded by high land, which in fome places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle ſize, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they diſcovered Sandwich Sound, in lat. 59 deg. 54 min. north. The harbour in which the ſhips anchored, appeared to be almoſt ſurrounded with high land; which was covered with ſnow; and here they were viſited by ſome of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the iſland of Unalaſchka; and after their departure from thence, ſtill continued to trace the American coaſt, till they diſcovered the ſtrait which ſeparates it from the continent of Aſia. Here both the hemiſpheres preſented to the view, a naked and flat country, without any defence, and the ſea between them not very deep. They paſſed the ſtrait, and arrived on the 20th of Auguſt, 1778, in lat. 70 deg. 54 min. long. 194 deg. 55 min. where they found themſelves almoſt ſurrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eaſtward, the cloſer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a ſtorm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a conſultation was therefore held on board the Reſolution, as ſoon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was reſolved, that as this paſſage was impracticable for any uſeful purpoſe of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it ſhould be proſecuted no farther; and eſpecially on account of the condition the ſhips were in, the approach of winter, and their great diſtance from any known place of refreſhment. The voyage, indeed, afforded ſufficient evidence, that no practicable paſſage exiſts between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans towards the North; and this voyage alſo aſcertained the weſtern boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return, it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator, captain Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, on the iſland of O'why'hee, one of the Sandwich iſles, on the 14th of February, 1779; not ſo much by his own raſhneſs, as through the inadvertence and neglect of ſome of his own people. His death was univerſally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but alſo in other parts of Europe, by thoſe to whom his merits and public ſervices were known. In his laſt voyage he had explored the coaſt of America, from 42 deg. 27 min. to 70 deg. 40 min. 57 ſec. north. After the death of capt. Cook, the command devolved on capt. Clerke, who died at ſea on his return to the ſouthward on the 22d day of Auguſt, 1779. The two ſhips returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October, 1780, anchored at the Nore.

We cannot conclude this article without inſerting the following extract, to perpetuate the memory and ſervices of ſo excellent a navigator:

"Perhaps no ſcience ever received greater additions from the labours of a ſingle man than geography has done from thoſe of capt. Cook. In his firſt voyage to the South Seas, he diſcovered the Society Iſlands; determined the inſularity of New Zealand; diſcovered the ſtraits which ſeparate the two iſlands, and are called after his name; and made a complete ſurvey of both. He afterwards explored the eaſtern coaſt of New Holland, hitherto unknown; an extent of twenty-ſeven degree of latitude, or upwards of two thouſand miles.

"In his ſecond expedition, he reſolved the great problem of a ſouthern continent, having traverſed that hemiſphere between the latitude of 40° and 70°, in ſuch a manner as not to leave a poſſibility of its exiſtence, unleſs near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage he diſcovered New Caledonia, the largeſt iſland in the Southern Pacific Ocean, except New Zealand; the iſland of Georgia; and an unknown coaſt, which he named Sandwich Land, the Thule of the Southern hemiſphere; and having twice viſited the tropical ſeas, he ſettled the ſituations of the old, and made ſeveral new diſcoveries.

"But the laſt voyage is diſtinguiſhed above all the reſt, by the extent and importance of its diſcoveries. Beſides ſeveral ſmaller iſlands in the Southern Pacific, he diſcovered to the north of the Equinoctial Line, the groupe called the Sandwich Iſlands, which, from their ſituation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of conſequence in the ſyſtem of European navigation, than any other diſcovery in the South Sea. He afterward explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the Weſtern coaſt of America, from the latitude of 43° to 70° north, containing an extent of three thouſand and five hundred miles; aſcertained the proximity of the two great continents of Aſia and America; paſſed the ſtraits between them, and ſurveyed the coaſt on each ſide, to ſuch a height of northern latitude, as to demonſtrate the impracticability of a paſſage, in that hemiſphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific Ocean, either by an Eaſtern or a Weſtern courſe. In ſhort, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japaneſe Archipelago, which ſtill remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

"As a navigator, his ſervices were not perhaps, leſs ſplendid, certainly not leſs important and meritorious. The method which he diſcovered, and ſo ſucceſsfully purſued, of preſerving the health of ſeamen, forms a new æra in navigation, and will tranſmit his name to future ages amongſt the friends and benefactors of mankind.

"Thoſe who are converſant in naval hiſtory, need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been ſought, through the medium of long voyages at ſea, have always been purchaſed. That dreadful diſorder which is peculiar to their ſervice, and whoſe ravages have marked the tracts of diſcoverers with circumſtances almoſt too ſhocking to relate, muſt, without exerciſing an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our ſeamen, have proved an inſuperable obſtacle to the proſecution of ſuch enterprizes. It was reſerved for captain Cook to ſhow the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unuſual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminiſhing the probability of life, in the ſmalleſt degree."

TERRA-INCOGNITA, or UNKNOWN COUNTRIES.

NOTWITHSTANDING the amazing diſcoveries of navigators, and the progreſs made in geography, ſince the firſt voyage of Columbus, anno 1492, there ſtill remain ſome countries, either abſolutely unknown, or very ſuperficially ſurveyed.

IN AFRICA.

OF this quarter of the globe, the moderns are acquainted with the ſea-coaſts only, and theſe very imperfectly, the internal parts beng little known to us; nor have we any ſatisfactory accounts of their inhabitants, their productions, or their trade. It is well known, however, that the rivers of Africa bring down large quantities of gold, and it is equally certain that the ancients drew prodigious riches from a country blessed with a variety of climates, some of them the finest in the world.

IN AMERICA.

IN North America, towards the pole, are Labrador, or New Britain, New North and South Wales, New Denmark, &c. very little known. The inhabitants, like those of Nova Zembla, Greenland, Groenland, and the northern parts of Siberia, are few, and these savage; low in stature, and of an ugly appearance. They live upon the raw flesh of whales, bears, oxen, &c. and go muffled up in skins, the hairy sides next their bodies. In these inhospitable regions, their nights (as may be seen in the table of climates in the introduction) are from one to six months, and the earth bound up in impenetrable snow; so that the miserable inhabitants live under ground great part of the year. Again, when the sun makes his appearance, they have a day of equal length.

All that vast tract on the back of the British settlements, from Canada and the lakes to the Pacific Ocean, which washes America on the west, is perfectly unknown to us, no European having ever travelled thither. From the climate and the situation of the country, it is supposed to be fruitful. It is inhabited by innumerable tribes of Indians, many of whom used to resort to the great fair of Montreal, even from the distance of 1000 miles when that city was in the hands of the French.

In South America, the country of Guiana, extending from the equator to the eighth degree of north latitude, and bounded by the river Oronoque on the north, and the Amazones on the south, is unknown, except a slip along the coast, where the French at Cayenne, and the Dutch at Surinam, have made some settlements; which, from the unhealthfulness of the climate, almost under the equator, and other causes, can hardly be extended any considerable way back.

The country of Amazonia, so called from the great river of that name, has never been thoroughly discovered, though it is situated between the European colonies of Peru and Brasil, and every where navigable by means of that great river and its branches. Some attempts have been made by the Spaniards and Portuguese; but being always attended with vast difficulties, so that few of the adventurers ever returned back, and no gold being found in the country, as they expected, no European nation has hitherto made any settlement there.

Patagonia, at the southern extremity of America, is sometimes described as part of Chili: but as neither the Spaniards, nor any other European nation, have any colonies here, it is almost unknown, and is generally represented as a barren, inhospitable country. And here in 52½ degrees south lat. we fall in with the Straits of Magellan, having Patagonia on the north, and the islands of Terra del Fuego on the south. These straits extend from east to west 110 leagues, but the breadth in some places falls short of one. They were first discovered by Magellan, or Magelhaens, a Portuguese, in the service of Spain, who sailed through them in the year 1520, and thereby discovered a passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific or Southern Ocean. He has been since considered as the first navigator that sailed round the world; but having lost his life in a skirmish with some Indians before the ships returned to Europe, the honour of being the firſt circumnavigator has been diſputed in favour of the brave Sir Francis Drake, who, in 1574, paſſed the ſame ſtrait in his way to India, from which he returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope. In 1616, La Maire, a Dutchman, keeping to the ſouthward of theſe ſtraits, diſcovered in lat 54½ another paſſage, ſince known by the name of the ſtraits of La Maire; and this paſſage, which has been generally preferred by ſucceeding navigators, is called doubling Cape Horn. The author of Anſon's voyage, however, from fatal experience, adviſes mariners to keep clear of theſe ſtraits and iſlands, by running down to 61 or 62 deg. ſouth lat. before they attempt to ſet their face weſtward, towards the South Seas; but the extreme long nights, and the intenſe cold in thoſe latitudes, render that paſſage practicable only in the months of January and February, which is there the middle of ſummer.

A NEW GEOGRAPHICAL TABLE,

Containing the Names and Situations of the chief Cities, Towns, Seas, Gulfs, Bays, Straits, Capes, and other remarkable Places in the known World. Collected from the most authentic Charts, Maps, and Observations.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Abbeville,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50-7N.	1-54 E.
Aberdeen	Aberdeenshire	Scotland,	Europe	57-22N.	1-40 W.
Abo,	Finland,	Sweden,	Europe	60-27N.	22-18 E.
Acapulco,	Mexico,	North	America	17-10N.	101-20W.
Adriatic sea, or Gulf of Venice	between	Italy and Turkey,	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Achem,	Sumatra,	East India,	Asia	5-22N.	95-29E.
Adventure Isle	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	17-05 S.	144-12W
Agde,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-18N.	3-33 E.
Agen,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-12N.	0-40 E.
St. Agnes (lights)	Scillies,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	49-56N.	6-41W.
Agra,	Agra,	East India,	Asia	26-43N.	76-49 E.
Air,	Airshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30N.	4-35W.
Adrianople,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	42-00N.	26-30 E.
Aix,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-31N.	5-31 E.
Alby,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-55N.	2-13 E.
Aleppo,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	35-45N.	37-25 E.
Alexandretta,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-35N.	36-25 E.
Alexandria,	Lower Egypt,	Turkey,	Africa	31-11N.	30-21 E.
Algiers,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-49N.	2-17 E.
Albany,	New York,	North	America	42-48N.	73-30W.
Amboyna,	Amboyna Isle,	East India,	Asia	4-25 S.	127 25 E.
Ambrym Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-09 S.	168-17 E.
Amiens,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	49-53N.	2-22 E.
AMSTERDAM,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-22N.	4-49 E.
Amsterdam,	Isle,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21 09 S.	174-51 W.
Ancona,	March of Ancona,	Italy,	Europe	43-37N.	13-35 E.
Angra,	Tercera Isle,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-39N.	27-07 W.
Antigua (St. John's town)	Antigua Isle,	Carib. Sea,	N. America	17-04N.	62-04W.
Antioch,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	36-30N.	36-40 E.
Antwerp,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13N.	04-27 E.
Archipelago,	Islands of	Greece,	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
Apæ (Isle)	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	16-46 S.	168-32 E.
Archangel,	Dwina,	Russia,	Europe	64 34N.	38-59 E.
Ascension Isle,		S. Atlantic	Ocean	7-56N.	14-27W.
Astracan,	Astracan,	Russia,	Asia	46 00N.	51-00 E.
Athens,	Achaia,	Turkey,	Europe	38-05N.	23-57 E.
St. Augustin,	Madagascar,	South Ind. Sea,	Africa	23-35 S.	43-13 E.
Aurora Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-08 S.	168-22 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
AVA,	Ava,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	20-20N.	95-30 E.
Avignon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-57N.	04-53 E.
BAgdad,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-20N.	43-51 E.
Baltic ſea,	between	Ger. and Swed.	Europe	Atlantic	Ocean.
Balaſore,	Orixa,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-20.N.	86-05 E.
Bay of Biſcay,	Coaſt of	France,	Europe	Atlantic	Ocean.
Bay of Bengal,	Coaſt of	India,	Aſia	Indian	Ocean.
Baldivia,	Chili,	South	America	39-35 S.	81-10W.
Balbec,	Syria,	Turkey,	Aſia	33-30N.	37-00 E.
Barcelona,	Catalonia,	Spain,	Europe	41-26N.	02-18 E.
Barbuda Iſle,		Atlant. Ocean,	N. America	17-49N	61-55W.
Baſil,	Baſil,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-35N.	07-34 E.
Baſſora,	Eyraca Arabia,	Turkey,	Aſia	30-45N.	47-00 E.
Baſtia,	Corſica,	Italy,	Europe	42-20N.	09-40 E.
Bath,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe	51-22N.	02-16W.
Belfaſt,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	54-30N.	06-30W.
Bender,	Baſſarabia,	Turkey,	Europe	46-40N.	29-00 E.
Bayeux,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-16N.	00-47 E.
BERLIN,	Brandenburg,	Germany,	Europe	52-32N.	13-31 E.
Bermudas,	Bermuda Iſles,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. America	36-25N.	63-23W.
Bern,	Bern,	Switzerland,	Europe	47-00N.	07-20 E.
Berwick,	Berwickſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48N.	01-45W.
Belgrade,	Servia,	Turkey,	Europe	45-00N.	21-20 E.
Bencoolen,	Sumatra,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	03-49 S.	102-05 E.
Batavia,	Java,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	06-10 S.	106-56 E.
Baſſe Terre,	Guadaloupe,	Carib. ſea,	N. America	15-59N.	61-54W.
Bourdeaux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-50N.	00-29W.
Bayonne,	Gaſcony,	France,	Europe	43-29N.	01-25W.
Borroughſton-neſs,	Linlithgowſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-48N.	03-44W.
Boſton,	Lincolnſhire,	England,	Europe	53-10N.	00-25 E.
BOSTON,	New England,	North	America	42-25N.	70-32W.
Bolabola,	Iſle,	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-32 S.	151-47W.
Bologne,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50-43N.	01-31 E.
Bologna,	Bologneſe,	Italy,	Europe	44-29N.	11-26 E.
Bolſcheriſkoi,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	52-54N.	156-42 E.
Bombay,	Bombay Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	18-56N.	72-43 E.
Bridge-town,	Barbadoes,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. America	13-05N.	58-03W.
Bilboa,	Biſcay,	Spain,	Europe	43-26N.	03-18W.
Birmingham,	Warwickſhire,	England,	Europe	52-30N.	01-50W.
Bokharia,	Uſbec	Tartary,	Aſia	39-15N.	67-00 E.
Breda,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-40N.	04-40 E.
Breſt,	Bretany,	France,	Europe	48-22N.	04-25W.
Bremen,	Lower Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	53-25N.	08-20 E.
Briſtol,	Somerſetſhire,	England,	Europe	51-33N.	02-40W.
BRESLAW,	Sileſia,	Bohemia,	Europe	51-03N.	17-13 E.
Bruſſels,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-51N.	04-26 E.
Buenos Ayres,	La Plata,	Brazil,	S. America	34-35 S.	58-26W.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Bukaraſt,	Walachia,	Turkey,	Europe	44-26 N.	26-13 E.
Britiſh ſea,	between	Brit. & Germ.	Europe	Atlantic	Ocean.
Black, or Euxine ſea,	Turkey in	Europe and	Aſia		
Bruges,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-16 N.	03-05 E.
Brunſwick,	Low Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-30 N.	10-30 E.
Buda,	Lower	Hungary,	Europe	47-40 N.	19-20 E.
Burlington,	Jerſey,	North	America	40-08 N.	75-00 W.
Bourbon Iſle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	20-51 S.	55 25 E.
CAbello (Port)	Terra Firma,	South	America	10-03 N.	67-27 W.
Cadiz,	Andaluſia,	Spain,	Europe	36-31 N.	6-06 W.
Caen,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-11 N.	0-16 W.
Cahors,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-26 N.	01-31 E.
Cagliari,	Sardinia,	Italy,	Europe	39-25 N.	09-38 E.
CACHAO,	Tonquin,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-30 N.	105-00 E.
Cairo,	Lower	Egypt,	Africa	30-02 N.	31-23 E.
Calais,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	50-57 N.	01-55 E.
Callao,	Peru,	South	America	12-01 N.	76-53 W.
Calcutta,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	22-34 N.	88-34 E.
Calmar,	Smaland,	Sweden,	Europe	56-40 N.	16-26 E.
Cambray,	Cambreſis,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-10 N.	3-18 E.
Cambeltown,	Argyleſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-30 N.	5-40 W.
Cambridge,	Cambridge-ſhire,	England,	Europe	52-12 N.	0-09 E.
Cambridge,	New	England,	N. America	42-25 N.	71-05 W.
Canary, NE. Point,	Canary Iſles,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-13 N.	15-33 W.
Candia,	Candia Iſland,	Mediter. Sea,	Europe	35-18 N.	25-23 E.
Canſo Port,	Nova Scotia,	North	America	45-20 N.	60-50 W.
Cambodia,	Cambodia,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	13-30 N.	105-00 E.
Canterbury,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-16 N.	1-15 E.
Canton,	Canton,	China,	Aſia	23-07 N.	113-07 E.
Carleſcroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	56-20 N.	15-31 E.
Carthage Ruins,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30 N.	09-00 E.
Carthagena,	Terra Firma,	South	America	10-26 N.	75-21 W.
Carthagena,	Murcia,	Spain,	Europe	37-37 N.	01-03 W.
Carliſle,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-47 N.	02-35 W.
Cardigan,	Cardiganſhire,	Wales,	Europe	52-10 N.	04-38 W.
Candy,	Ceylon,	Indian Ocean,	Aſia	07-54 N.	79-00 E.
Caſpian ſea,	Ruſſia,	Tartary,	Aſia		
Caſan,	Caſan,	Siberia,	Aſia	55-43 N.	49-13 E.
Caſſel,	Heſſe Caſſel,	Germany,	Europe	51-19. N.	9-34 E.
Caſtres,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-37 N.	2-19 E.
St. Catharine's Iſle,	Atlantic,	Ocean,	South America	27-35 S.	49-12 W.
Cavan,	Cavan,	Ireland,	Europe	54-51 N.	7-18 W.
Cayenne,	Cayenne Iſle,	South	America	4-56 N.	52-10 W.
Cette,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-23 N.	3-47 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Challon,	Burgundy,	France,	Europe	46-46 N.	4-56 E.
Chandernagor,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	22-51 N.	88-34 E.
Charlton,	Isle,	Hudson's Bay,	North America	52-03 N.	79-00 W.
Chartres,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe	48-26 N	1-33 E.
Cherbourg,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-38 N.	1-33 W.
Christmas Sound,	Terra del Fuego,	South	America	55-21 N.	69-57 W.
St. Christopher's Isle,	Carribbean	Sea,	N. America	17-15 N.	62-38 W.
Civita Vecchia,	Patro Di S. Petro,	Italy,	Europe	42-05 N.	11-51 E.
Clerke's Isles,	Atlantic,	Ocean,	South America	55-05 S.	34-37 W.
Clermont,	Auvergne,	France,	Europe	45-46 N.	03-10 E.
Colmar,	Alsace,	France,	Europe	48-04 N.	07-27 E.
Cologne,	Elect. of Cologne,	Germany,	Europe	50-55 N.	07-10 E.
Cape Clear,	Irish Sea,	Ireland,	Europe	51-18 N.	11-10 W.
—Comorin,	On this side the Ganges,	East India,	Asia	07-56 N.	78-10 E.
—Finisterre,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-51 N.	09-12 W.
—St. Vincent,	Algarve,	Portugal,	Europe	37-02 N.	08-57 W.
—of Good Hope,	Hottentots,	Caffraria,	Africa	34-29 S.	18-28 E.
—Florida,	East Florida,	North	America	24-57 N.	80-30 W.
—Verd,		Negroland,	Africa	14-45 N.	17-28 W.
—Horn,	Terra del Fuego Island,	South	America	55-58 S.	67-21 W.
Cattegate,	between	Swed. & Den.	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Ceuta,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	35-04 N.	6-30 W.
Chester,	Cheshire,	England,	Europe	53-15 N	0-03 W.
CHARLES-TOWN,	South Carolina	North	America	32-45 N.	79-12 W.
COPENHAGEN,	Zealand Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-40 N.	12-40 E.
CONSTANTINOPLE,	Romania,	Turkey,	Europe	41-01 N.	28-58 E.
Cork,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	51-53 N.	8-23 W.
Coventry,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52-25 N.	01-25 W.
Constance,	Suabia	Germany,	Europe	47-37 N.	09-12 E.
Corinth,	Morea,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30 N.	23-00 E.
Cowes,	Isle of Wight,	England,	Europe	50-46 N.	01-14 W.
Cracow,	Little Poland,	Poland,	Europe	50-10 N.	19-55 E.
Cremsmunster,	Arch-duchy of Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-03 N.	14-12 E.
Curassau,	Curassau Isle,	West India,	America	11-56 N.	68-20 W.
Cusco,	Peru,	South	America	12-25 S.	70-00 W.
Cummin,	Isle,	North Pacific Ocean,	Asia	31-40 N.	121-09 E.
DAmascus,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-15 N.	37-20 E.
Dantzic,	Polish Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	54-22 N.	18-38 E.
Decca,	Bengal,	East India,	Asia	23-30 N.	89-20 E.
Delhi,	Delhi,	East India,	Asia	29-00 N.	76-30 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Delft,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-06N.	04-05 E.
Derbent,	Dagiſtan,	Perſia,	Aſia	41-41N.	50-30 E.
Dax,	Gaſcony,	France,	Europe	43-42N.	0-58W.
Dieppe,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-55N.	0-59 E.
Dijon,	Burgundy,	France,	Europe	47-19N.	04-57 E.
Diſbingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	48-30N.	10-19 E.
Dol,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-33N.	01-41W.
Dominique,	Wind. Iſlands,	Weſt India,	America	15-18N.	01-22W.
Dover,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-07N.	01-13 E.
Dreux,	Orleannois,	France,	Europe	48-44N.	01-16 E.
Derby,	Derbyſhire,	England,	Europe	52-58N.	01-30W.
Derry,	Ulſter,	Ireland,	Europe	54-52N.	07-40W.
Dieu,	Guzerat,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-37N.	69-30 E.
DRESDEN,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-00N.	13-36E.
Dundee,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-26N.	02-48W.
DUBLIN,	Leinſter,	Ireland,	Europe	53-21N.	06-01W.
Durham,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-48N.	01-25W.
Dumbarton,	Dumbartonſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-44N.	04-20W.
Dungeneſs,	Kent,	England,	Europe	50-52N.	01-04 E.
Dunkirk,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-02N.	02-27 E.
Dunbar,	Haddington,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	02-25W.
Dumfries,	Dumfriesſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-08N.	03-25W.
ENgliſh Channel,	between	Eng. and Fran.	Europe	Atlantic	Ocean.
Eaſtern Ocean,	betw. the N.W.	of N. Am. and	N.E. of Aſia,	N. Pacific	Ocean.
Epheſus,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Aſia	38-01N.	27-30 E.
Eaoowe Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	21-24 S.	174-25W.
Eaſter Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	America	27-06 S.	109-41W.
Edinburgh,	Edinburghſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-57N.	03-07W.
Edyſtone,	Eng. Channel,	England,	Europe	50-08N.	04-19W.
Enebrun,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe	44-34N.	06-34 E.
Enatum Iſle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	20-10 S.	169-59 E.
Elbing,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-15N.	20-00 E.
Embden,	Weſtphalia,	Germany,	Europe	53-25N.	07-10 E.
Erramanga Iſle	Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	18-46 S.	169-23E.
Erzerum,	Turcomania,	Turkey,	Aſia	39-56N.	42-05 E.
Ethiopean Sea,	Coaſt of	Guinea,	Africa	Atlantic	Ocean.
Euſtatius,	Carib. Sea,	Weſt India,	N. Amer.	17-29N	63-05W.
Evereux,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-01N.	1-13 E.
Exeter,	Devonſhire,	England,	Europe	50-44N.	3-29W.
FAlmouth,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08N.	4-57W.
Falkirk,	Stirling,	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	3-48W.
Fez,	Fez,	Morocco,	Africa	33-30N.	6-00W.
Ferrol,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	43-30N.	8-40W.
Fayal Town,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-32N.	28-36W.
Ferdinand Naronka,		Braſil,	S. America	3-56 S.	32-43W.
Ferrara,	Ferrareſe,	Italy,	Europe	44-54N.	11-41 E.
Ferro (Town)	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	27-47N.	17-40W.
Florence,	Tuſcany,	Italy,	Europe	43-46N.	11-07 E.
Flores,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	39-34N.	30-51W.
St. Flour,	Auvergne,	France,	Europe	45-01N.	03-10 E.
France (Iſle of)	Indian	Ocean,	Africa	10-09 S.	57-33 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long. D. M.
Franckfort on the Main,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-55 N.	8-40 E.
Frawenburg,	Polish	Prussia	Europe	54-22 N.	20-12 E.
Fuego Isle,	Cape Verd,	Atlant Ocean,	Africa	14-56 N.	24-23 W.
Funchal	Madeira,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	32-37 N.	17-01 W.
Furneau Isle,	Pacific	Ocean,	Asia	17-11 S.	143-01 W.
Fort St. David,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	12-05 N.	80-55 E.
GAP,	Dauphiné,	France,	Europe	44-33 N.	06-09 E.
Genes,	Savoy,	Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	08-40 E.
Geneva,	Geneva,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-12 N.	06-05 E.
St George, Isle,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-39 N.	27-55 W.
GENOA.	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	44-25 N.	08-30 E.
Gibraltar,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	36-05 N.	05-17 W.
St. George, To.	Bermudas,	Atlant. Ocean,	N. Amer.	32-45 N.	63-30 W.
St. Georg. Fort.	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	13-04 N.	80-33 E.
Ghent,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-03 N.	03-48 E.
Glasgow,	Lanerkshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-51 N.	04-10 W.
Goa,	Malabar,	East India,	Asia	15-31 N.	73-50 E.
Goat Isle	Indian	Ocean,	Asia	13-55 N.	120-07 E.
Gomera Isle,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-05 N.	17-03 W.
Good Hope T.	Hottentots,	Caffres,	Africa	33-55 S.	18-28 E.
Goree,	Atlantic	Ocean	Africa	14-40 N.	17-20 W.
Gottenburg,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	57-42 N.	11-43 E.
Gottengen,	Hanover,	Germany,	Europe	51-31 N	09-58 E.
Granville,	Normandy,	France,	Europe	48-50 N.	01-32 W.
Gratiosa,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	39-02 N.	27-53 W.
Gratz,	Stiria,	Germany,	Europe	47-04 N.	15-29 E.
Gravelines,	Fr. Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-59 N.	02-13 E.
Gryphiswald,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-04 N.	13-43 E.
Guadaloupe,	Caribean	Sea,	N. Amer.	15-59 N.	61-54 W.
Gloucester,	Gloucestersh.	England,	Europe	51-05 N.	02-16 W.
Gombroom,	Farsistan,	Persia,	Asia	27-30 N.	74-20 E.
Greenock,	Renfrewshire	Scotland,	Europe	55-52 N	04-22 W.
Guam,	Ladrone Isles,	East India,	Asia	14-00 N.	140-30 E.
Gulf of Bothnia,	Coast of	Sweden,	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
—of Finland,	between	Swed & Russia,	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
—of Venice,	between	Italy & Turk.	Europe	Mediterranean Sea.	
—of Ormus,	between	Persia & Arab.	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
—of Persia	between	Persia & Arab.	Asia	Indian Ocean.	
—of California,	between	Calif. & Mexico,	N. Amer	Pacific Ocean.	
—of St. Law.	Coast of	New Scotland,	N. America	Atlantic Ocean.	
—of Mexico,	Coast of	Mexico,	N. Amer.	Atlantic Ocean.	
HAGUE,	Holland,	Netherlands	Europe	52-04 N.	04-22 E.
Hamburg,	Holstein,	Germany,	Europe	53-34 N.	09-55 E.
Hastings,	Sussex,	England,	Europe	50-52 N.	0-40 E.
Halifax,	Yorkshire.	England,	Europe	55-47 N.	01-52 W.
HALIFAX,	Nova Scotia,	North	America	44-40 N.	63-15 W.
Hanover,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	52-33 N.	09-35 E.
Havannah,	Cuba	Island,	N. Amer.	23-11 N.	02-13 W.
Havre de Grace	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-29 N	01 10 E.
La Heese,	D Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-55 N	04-50 E.
Hellespont,	Med. & Bl. Sea.	Europe and	Asia		

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
St. Helena, Ja. Town,	South	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	15-55S.	5-44W.
Hernoſand,	W. Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	62-38N.	17-58E.
Hervey's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	19-17S.	158-43W.
Haerlem,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52-20N.	4-10E.
Hereford.	Herefordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-06N.	2-38W.
Hoai-Nghan,	Kian-Nan,	China,	Aſia	33-34N.	118-54E.
La Hogue Cape	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-44N.	1-51W.
Hood's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	9-26S.	138-47W.
Hoogſtraten,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-24N.	4-52E.
Howe's Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-46S.	154-01W.
Huahine Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-44S.	151-01W.
Hull,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-45N.	0-12W.
Hudſon's Bay,	Coaſt of	Labrador,	N. Amer. N. Atlantic Ocean.		
JAkutſkoi,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	62-01N.	129-52E.
Janeiro Rio,		Braſil,	S. Amer.	22-54S.	42-38W.
Jaſſy,	Moldavia,	Turkey,	Europe	47-08N.	27-34E.
Java Head,	Java Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	6-49S.	106-55E.
Jeddo,	Japan Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	36-20N.	139-00E.
Jeruſalem,	Paleſtine,	Turkey,	Aſia	31-55N.	35-25E.
Immer Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	19-10S.	169-51E.
Ingolſtadt,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-45N.	11-27E.
St. John's To.	Antigua,	Leeward Iſles,	N. Amer.	17-04N.	62-04E.
St. John's To.	Newfoundland	North	America	47-32N.	52-21W.
St. Joſeph's,	California,	Mexico,	N. Amer.	23-03N.	109-37W.
Irraname Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	19-31S.	170-26E.
Iſlamabad,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	22-20N.	91-50E.
Iſle of Pines,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	22-38S.	167-43E.
ISPAHAN,	Irac Agem,	Perſia,	Aſia	32-25N.	52-55E.
Judda,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	21-29N.	49-27E.
Juthria,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14-18N.	100-55E.
Inverneſs,	Inverneſsſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	57-33N.	4-02W.
Ivica Iſle,	Mediterr. Sea,	Italy,	Europe	38-50N.	1-40E.

Iſthmus of Suez, joins Africa to Aſia.
——— of Corinth, joins the Morea to Greece, Europe.
——— of Panama, joins North and South America.
——— of Malacca, joins Malacca to farther India, Aſia.
Iriſh Sea, between Great Britain and Ireland, Europe, Atlantic Ocean.
Indian Ocean, Coaſt of India, Aſia.

KAmtſchat-ka,	Siberia,	Ruſſia,	Aſia	57-20N.	163-00E.
Kedgere,	Bengal,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	21-48N.	88-55E.
Kelſo,	Roxboroughſ.	Scotland,	Europe	55-38N.	02-12W.
Kilmarnock,	Airſhire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-38N.	00-30W.
Kinſale,	Munſter,	Ireland,	Europe	51-32N.	08-20W.
KINGSTON,	Jamaica,	Weſt India,	America	18-15N.	76-38W.
Kiow,	Ukraine,	Ruſſia,	Europe	50-30N.	31-12E.
Kola,	Lapland,	Ruſſia,	Europe	68-52N.	33-13E.
Koningſberg,	Pruſſia,	Poland,	Europe	54-43N.	21-35E.
LAncaſter,	Lancaſhire,	England,	Europe	54-05 .	02-55E.
Levant ſea	Coaſt of ,	Syria,	Aſia	Mediterranean ſea.	
Laguna,	Teneriffe,	Canaries,	A. Ocean	28-28N.	16-13W.
Landau,	Alſace,	France,	Europe	49-11N.	08-02E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Landſcroon,	Schonen,	Sweden,	Europe	55-52N.	12-51 E.
Lauſanne,	Cant. of Vaud,	Switzerland,	Europe	46-31N.	06-50 E.
Leeds,	Yorkſhire,	England,	Europe	53-48N.	01-29W.
Leiceſter,	Leiceſterſhire,	England,	Europe	52-38N.	01-03W.
Leipſic,	Saxony,	Germany,	Europe	51-19N.	12-25 E.
Leper's Iſland,	S. Pacific	Ocean,	Aſia	15-23 S.	168-03 E.
Leſkard,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-26N.	04-36W.
Leſparre,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	45-18N.	00-52W.
Leyden,	Holland	Netherlands,	Europe	52-10N.	04-32 E.
Leith,	Edinburghſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-58N.	03-00W.
Lahor,	Lahor,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	32-40N.	75-30 E.
Linlithgow,	Linlithgowſh.	Scotland,	Europe	55-56N.	03-30W.
Lincoln.	Lincolnſhire,	England,	Europe	53-15N.	00-27W.
Lima,	Peru,	South	America	12-01 S.	76-44W.
Liege,	Biſh. of Liege,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37N	05-40 E.
Limoges,	Limoges,	France,	Europe	45-49N.	01-20 E.
Lintz,	Auſtria,	Germany,	Europe	41-16N.	13-57 E.
Liſle,	Fren. Flander	Netherlands,	Europe	50-37N.	03-09 E.
Liſbon,	Eſtremadura,	Portugal,	Europe	38-42N.	09-04W.
Lizard Point,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	49-57N.	05-10W.
Louiſburg,	C. Breton Iſle,	North	America	45-53N.	59-48W.
Limerick,	Limerickſhire,	Ireland,	Europe	52-35N.	08-48W.
Litchfield,	Staffordſhire,	England,	Europe	52-43N.	01-04W.
Loretto,	Pope's Territ.	Italy,	Europe	43-15N.	14-15 E.
LONDON,	Middleſex,	England,	Europe	51-31N.	1ſt Merid.
Londonderry,	Londonderry,	Ireland,	Europe	50-00N.	07 40W.
Louveau,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	12-42N.	100-56 E.
Louvain,	Auſtr. Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-53N.	04-49 E.
Lubec.	Holſtein,	Germany,	Europe	54-00N.	11-40 E.
St. Lucia, Iſle,	Windward Iſles	Weſt Indies,	N. Amer.	13-24N.	60-46W.
Lunden,	Gothland,	Sweden,	Europe	55-41N.	13-26 E.
Luneville,	Lorrain,	France,	Europe	48-35N.	06-35 E.
Luxemburg,	Luxemburg,	Netherlands,	Europe	49-37N.	06-16 E.
Lyons,	Lyons,	France,	Europe	45-45N.	04-54 E.
MAcao,	Canton,	China,	Aſia	22-12N.	113-51 E.
Macaſſar,	Celebes Iſle,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	05-09 S.	119-53 E.
Madeira, Funchal,	Atlantic	Ocean,	Africa	32-37N.	17-01W.
Madras,	Coromandel,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	13-04N.	80 33 E.
MADRID,	New Caſtile,	Spain,	Europe	40-25N.	03-20 E.
Magdalena Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	10-25 S.	138-44W.
Mahon, Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterr. ſea,	Europe	39-50N.	03-53 E.
Majorica,	Iſle,	Mediterr. ſea,	Europe	39-35N.	02-34 E.
Malacca,	Malacca,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	02-12N.	102-10 E.
Malines,	Brabant,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-01N.	04-33 E.
Malicola Iſles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-15N.	167-44 E.
St. Maloe's,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-38N.	01-56W.
Malta Iſle,	Mediterranean	Sea,	Africa	35-54N.	14-33 E.
Manilla,	Luconia, Philip. Iſles,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	14-36N.	120-58 E.
MANTUA,	Mantua,	Italy,	Europe	45-20N.	10-47 E.
Maregalante Iſle,	Atlantic	Ocean,	S. Amer.	15-55N.	61-05W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter*	*Lat.* D.M.	*Long.* D.M.
Marſeilles,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43-17N.	05-27 E.
St. Martha,	St. Martha,	Terra Firma,	America	11-26N.	75-59W.
St. Martin's Iſl	Caribean Iſles,	Weſt India,	America	18-04N.	62-57W.
Martinico Iſle,	Caribean Iſles,	Weſt India,	America	14-44N.	61-05W.
St. Mary's Iſle,	Scilly Iſles,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	49-57N.	06 38W.
St. Mary's To.	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	36-56N.	25-06W.
Maſkelyne Iſles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-32 S.	168-04E.
Mauritius,	Indian	Ocean,	Africa	20-09 S.	57-34 E.
Maurua Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	16-25 S.	152-37E.
Mayence,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-54N.	08-25 E.
Mayo Iſle,	Cape Verd,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	15-10N.	23-00W.
Meaux,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	48-57N.	02-57 E.
Medina,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	25-00N.	39-33 E.
Mecca,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	21-45N.	41-00 E.
Mediterr. Sea,	between	Europe and	Africa Atlantic Ocean.		
Mequinez,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	34-30N.	06.00 E.
MESSINA,	Sicily Iſland,	Italy,	Europe	38-30N.	15-40E.
Mergui,	Siam,	Eaſt India,	Aſia	12-12N.	98-13 E.
Mexico,	Mexico,	North	America	19-54N.	100-00W
Milford Haven	Pembrokeſhire	Wales,	Europe	51-43N.	05-15W.
Mitea Iſles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	17-52 S.	48-01W.
St. Michael's Iſle,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	37-47N.	25-37W.
Middleburg Iſl.	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	21-20 S.	174-29W.
MILAN,	Milaneſe,	Italy,	Europe	45-25N.	09-30 E.
Mocha,	Arabia Felix,	Arabia,	Aſia	13-40N.	43-50 E.
MODENA,	Modena,	Italy,	Europe	44-34N.	11-17E.
Montreal,	Canada,	North	America	45-35N.	73-11W.
Montpelier,	Languedoc,	France,	Europe	43-36N.	03-37 E.
Montroſe,	Forfar,	Scotland,	Europe	56-34N.	0-20W.
Montague Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	17-26 S.	168-36 E.
Montſerrat Iſle,	Caribean Iſles,	Weſt India,	America	16-47N.	62-12W.
MOROCCO,	Morocco,	Barbary,	Africa	30-32N.	06-10W.
Moſcow,	Moſcow,	Ruſſia,	Europe	55-45N.	37-50E.
Munich,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48-09N.	11-35 E.
Munſter,	Weſtphalia,	Germany,	Europe	52-00N.	07-16 E.
NArva,	Livonia,	Ruſſia,	Europe	59-00N.	27-35 E.
Nanci,	Lorrain,	France,	Europe	48-41N.	06-10 E.
Nanking,	Kiangan,	China,	Aſia	32-10N.	181-30 E.
Namur,	Namur,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-28N.	04-49 E.
Nangaſachi,	Japan,	N. Pacific Oc.	Aſia	32-32N.	182-51 E.
Naples,	Naples,	Italy,	Europe	40-50N.	14-18 E.
Nantes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	47-13N.	01-28W.
Nice,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	43-41N.	07-22 E.
Newport,	Rhode Iſland,	North	America	41-35N.	71-06W.
Nieuport,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-07N.	02-50 E.
New York,	New York,	North	America	40-40N.	74-00W.
Nineveh,	Curdiſtan,	Turkey,	Aſia	36-00N.	45-00 E.
St. Nich. Mole,	Hiſpaniola,	Weſt India,	America	19-49N.	73-24W.
Newcaſtle,	Northumberl.	England,	Europe	55-03N.	01-24W.
Ningpo,	Chekiang,	China,	Aſia	29-57N.	120-23 E.
Norfolk Iſle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Aſia	29-01 S.	168-15E.
Noriton,	Pennſylvania,	North	America	40-09N.	75-18W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
North Cape,	Wardhus,	Lapland,	Europe	71-10N.	26-02 E.
Nottingham,	Nottinghamsh	England,	Europe	53-00N.	01-06 W.
Northampton,	Northamptsh.	England,	Europe	52-15N.	00-55 W.
Norwich,	Norfolk,	England,	Europe	52-40N.	01-25 E.
Nuremberg.	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49 27N.	11-12 E.
OLmutz,	Moravia,	Bohemia,	Europe	49-30N.	16-45 E.
Ochotskoi,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	59-20N.	143-17 E.
Ohevahoa Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	09-40 S.	138-50W.
Ohitahoo Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	09-55 S.	139 01W.
Oleron Isle,	Saintogne,	France,	Europe	46-02N.	01-20 W.
Olympia,	Greece,	Turkey,	Europe	37-30N.	22-00 E.
Olinde,	Brazil,	South	America	08-13 S.	35-00 W.
Onateayo Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	09-58S.	138-40W.
Oporto,	Duoro,	Portugal,	Europe	41-10N,	08-22 W.
Orenburg,	Tartary,	Russia,	Asia	51-46N.	55-14 E.
Orleans,	Orleanno's,	France,	Europe	47-54N.	01-59 E.
Orleans(New)	Louisiana,	North	America	29-57N.	89-53 W.
Orotava,	Teneriffe,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-23N.	16-19 W.
Ormus,	Ormicos Isle,	Persia,	Asia	26-50N.	57-00 E.
Orsk,	Tartary,	Russia,	Asia	51-12N.	58-37 E.
Oran,	Algiers,	Barbary,	Africa	36-30N.	00-05 E.
Osnaburg Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-52 S.	148-01 E.
Ostend,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-13N.	03-00 E.
Oxford Obser-vatory,	Oxfordshire,	England	Europe	51-45N.	01-10 W.
St. Omer's,	Flanders,	Netherlands,	Europe	50-44N.	02-19 E.
l'Orient (Port)	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	47-45N.	03-20 W.
PAcific, or Or. Ocean,	between	Asia and	America		
Padua,	Paduano,	Italy,	Europe	45-22N.	12-00 E.
Paisley,	Renfrewshire,	Scotland,	Europe	55-48N.	04-08 W.
PALERMO,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe	38-30N.	13-43 E.
Palmyra,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	33-00N.	39-00 E.
Panama,	Darien,	Terra Firma,	S. Amer.	08-47N.	80-16 W.
Pallifer's Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38S.	146-25W.
Palma Isle,	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-36N.	17-45 W.
Palmerston's I.	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	18-00S.	162-52W.
Paoom Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-30 S.	168-33 E.
PARIS Obser-vatory.	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	48-50N.	2-25 E.
Patrixfiord,	Iceland,	N. Atl. Ocean,	Europe	65-35N.	14-05 W.
Parma,,	Parmesan,	Italy,	Europe	44-45N.	10-51 E.
Patna,	Bengal,	East Indies,	Asia	25-45N.	83-00 E.
Pau,	Bearn,	France,	Europe	45-15N.	0-04 W.
St. Paul's Isle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	37-51 S.	77-53 E.
Pegu,	Pegu,	East India,	Asia	17-00N.	97-00 E.
Pekin,	Petchi-li,	China,	Asia	39-54N.	116-29 E.
St. Peter's Fort	Martinico,	W. India,	N. Amer.	14-44N.	61 16 W.
Pembroke,	Pembrokeshire	Wales,	Europe	51-45N.	4-5 W.
Penzance,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-08N.	6-00 W.
PENSACOLA,	West Florida,	North	America	30-22N.	87-20 W.
Perigueux,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	45-11N.	00-48 E.

Names of Places.	Provinces.	Countries.	Quarter.	Lat. D. M.	Long D. M.
Perinaldi,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53N.	7-45 E.
Perth,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-22N.	3-12W.
Perth-amboy,	New York,	North	America	40-30N.	74-20W.
St. Peter's Isle.	North	Atlant. Ocean,	America	46-46N.	56-12W.
Persepolis.	Irac Agem,	Persia,	Asia	30-30N.	54-00 E.
Petropawloskoi	Kamtschatka	Russia,	Asia	53-01N.	158-40 E.
PETERSBURG,	Ingria,	Russia,	Europe	59-56N.	30-24 E.
Philadelphia,	Pennsylvania,	North	America	39-56N.	75 09W.
St. Philip's Fort,	Minorca,	Mediterr. Sea,	Europe	39-50N.	03-53 E.
Pickersgill Isle,	South	Atlant. Ocean,	America	54-42 S.	36-53W.
Pico,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-28N.	28-21W.
Pines, Isle of,	N. Caledonia,	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-38 S.	167-43 E.
Pisa,	Tuscany,	Italy,	Europe	43-43N.	10-17 E.
Placentia,	Newfoundland isle,	North	America	47-26N.	55-00W.
Plymouth,	Devonshire,	England,	Europe	50-22N.	4-10W.
Plymouth,	New England,	North	America	41-48N.	70-25W.
Pollingen,	Suabia,	Germany,	Europe	47-48N.	10-48 E.
Pondicherry,	Coromandel,	East India,	Asia	11-41N.	79-57 E.
Ponoi,	Lapland,	Russia,	Europe	67-06N.	30-28 E.
Porto Bello,	Terra Firma,	South	America	9-33N.	79-45W.
Porto Sancto Isle,	Madeira,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	32-51N.	16-20W.
Port Royal,	Jamaica,	West India,	America	18-00N.	76-40W.
Port Royal,	Martinico,	West India,	America	14-35N.	61-04W.
Portsmouth Town,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-47N.	01-01W.
—Academy,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50 48N.	01-01W.
Portsmouth,	New England,	North	America	43-10N.	70 20W.
Portland Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	39-25 S.	178 17 E.
Portland Isle,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	6[illegible]-22N.	18 49W.
Prague,		Bohemia,	Europe	50-04N.	14-50 E.
Prince of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America	58-47N.	94-02W.
Portosi,	Peru,	South	America	21-00 S.	77-00W.
Providence,	New England,	North	America	41-50N.	71-21W.
Preston,	Lancashire,	England,	Europe	53-45N.	2-50W.
Presburg,	Upper	Hungary,	Europe	48 20N.	17-30W.
Pulo Candor Isle,	Indian Ocean,	East Indies,	Asia	28-40N.	107-25 E.
Pulo Timor Isle,	Gulf of Siam,	East India,	Asia	03-00N.	104-30 E.
Pylestaart Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	22-23 S.	175-26W.
QUebec,	Canada,	North	America	46-55N.	69-48W.
St. Quintin,	Picardy,	France,	Europe	49 50N.	03-22 E.
Quito,	Peru,	South	America	00-13 S.	77-50W.
Queen Charlotte's Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	10-11 S.	164-35 E.
RAmherd,	Cornwall,	England,	Europe	50-18N.	4-15W.
Ragusa,	Dalmatia,	Venice,	Europe	42-45N.	1[illegible]-25 E.
Ratisbon,	Bavaria,	Germany,	Europe	48 56N.	12-05 E.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Re Isle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe	46-14N.	1-20W.
Recif,	Brasil,	South	America	8-10 S.	35-30W.
Rennes,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-06N.	1-36W.
Resolution Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-23 S.	141-40W.
Rheims,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49-14N.	4-07 E.
Rhodes,	Rhode Island,	Levant Sea,	Asia	36-20N.	28-00 E.
Riga,	Livonia,	Russia,	Europe	56-55N.	24-00 E.
Rimini,	Romagna,	Italy,	Europe	44-03N.	12-39 E.
Rochelle,	Aunis,	France,	Europe	46-09N.	1-04W.
Rochfort,	Saintonge,	France,	Europe	46-02N.	0-53W.
Rock of Lisbon,	Mouth of Tagus river,	Portugal,	Europe	38-45N.	9-30W.
Rodez,	Guienne,	France,	Europe	44-21N.	2-39 E.
Rodrigues Isle,	South	Indian Ocean,	Africa	10-40N.	63-15 E.
Rome, (St. Peter's)	Pope's Territory,	Italy,	Europe	41-53N.	12-34 E.
Rotterdam,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	51-56N.	4-33 E.
Rotterdam Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	20-16N.	174-24W.
Rouen	Normandy,	France,	Europe	49-26N.	1-00W.
ST. Augustin	East Florida,	North	America	29-45N.	81-12W.
—Domingo,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	America	18-20N.	70-00W.
—Jaco,	Chili,	South	America	34-00 S.	77-00W.
—Salvador,	Brasil,	South	America	11-58 S.	38-00W.
Saba Isle,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	America	17-39N.	63-12W.
Sagan,	Silesia,	Germany,	Europe	51-42N.	15-27 E.
Sall Isle,	North,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	16-38N.	22-51W.
Salonichi,	Macedonia,	Turkey,	Europe	40-41N.	23-13 E.
Salvage Isles,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	30-00N.	15-49W.
Samana,	Hispaniolia,	West India,	America	19-15N.	69-11W.
Samarcand,	Usbec,	Tartary,	Asia	40-40N.	69-00 E.
Salisbury,	Wiltshire,	England,	Europe	51-00N.	1-45W.
Santa Cruz,	Teneriffe,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-27N	16-11W.
Sandwich Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	17-41 S.	168-38 E.
Santa Fé,	New Mexico,	North	America	36-00N.	105-00W.
Savannah,	Georgia,	North	America	31-55N.	80-20W.
Sanders's Isle,	South Georgia,	S. Atlantic Ocean,	S. America	58-00 S.	26-53W.
Savage Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-02 S.	169-25W.
Sayd, or Thebes,	Upper	Egypt,	Africa	27-00N.	32-20 E.
Samaria Ruins	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	32-40N.	38-00 E.
St. George's Channel,	between	England and Ireland,	Europe	Atlantic Ocean.	
Scarborough,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	54-18N.	0-10W.
Scone,	Perthshire,	Scotland,	Europe	56-24N.	3-10W.
Schwezingen,	Lower Rhine,	Germany,	Europe	49-23N.	8-45 E.
Sea of Asoph,	Little Tartary,	Europe and	Asia		
—Marmora,	Turkey in	Europe and	Asia	Black Sea	
—Ochotsk,	between	Siberia & Kamtschatka,	Asia,	N. Pacif Ocean.	
—Yellow,	betw. Eastern	Tartary, China,	and Corea,	N. Pacif. Ocean.	
Sedan,	Champagne,	France,	Europe	49-44N.	5-02 E.
Senegal,		Negroland,	Africa	15-53N.	16-26W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M.	*Long.* D. M.
Shepherd's Isles,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-58S.	168-47 E.
Siam,	Siam,	East India,	Asia	14-18N.	100-55 E.
Si-gham-fu,	Chensi,	China,	Asia	34-16N.	108-48 E.
Sisteron,	Dauphiny,	France,	Europe	44-11N.	6-01W.
Shrewsbury,	Shropshire,	England,	Europe	52-43N.	2-46W.
Shields (South)	Durham,	England,	Europe	55-02N.	1-15 E.
Sheerness,	Kent,	England,	Europe	51-25N.	0-50 E.
Seville,	Andalusia,	Spain,	Europe	37-15N.	6-05W.
Sidon,	Holy Land,	Turkey,	Asia	33-33N.	36-15 E.
Smyrna,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	38-28N.	27-24 E.
Southampton,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	50-55N.	1-25W.
Sombavera Isles,	Carib. Sea,	West India,	N. America	18-38N.	63 32W.
Soolo Isle,	Philip. Isles,	East India,	Asia	5-57N.	121-20 E.
Spaw,	Liege,	Germany,	Europe	50-30N.	5-40 E.
Sound,	between	Denmark and Sweden,	Europe	Baltic Sea.	
Stafford,	Staffordshire,	England,	Europe	52-50N.	2-00W.
Sterling,	Sterlingshire,	Scotland,	Europe	50-10N.	3-50W.
Stralsund,	Pomerania,	Germany,	Europe	54-23N.	13-22 E.
Strasburgh,	Alsace,	France,	Europe	48-34N.	7 46 E.
Stockholm,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-20N.	18 08 E.
Straits of Dover, between England and France, English Channel.					
Straits of Gibraltar, between Europe and Africa, Mediterranean Sea.					
Straits of Babelmandel, between Africa and Asia, Red Sea.					
Straits of Ormus, between Persia and Arabia, Persian Gulf.					
Straits of Malacca, between Malacca and Sumatra, Asia, Indian Ocean.					
Straits of Magellan, between Terra del Fuego, and Patagonia, South America.					
Straits of La Maire, in Patagonia, South America, Atlantic and Pacific Oceans.					
Straits of Waigats, between Nova Zembla and Russia, Asia.					
Straits of Sunda, between Sumatra and Java, Indian Ocean, Asia.					
Straumness,	Iceland,	N. Atlantic Ocean,	Europe	65-39N.	24-24W.
Suez,	Suez,	Egypt,	Africa	29-50N.	33-27 E.
Sunderland,	Durham,	England,	Europe	54-55N.	1-10W.
Surinam,	Surinam,	South	America	6-00N.	55-30W.
Sultz,	Lorrain,	France,	Europe	47-53N.	7-09W.
Surat,	Guzerat,	East India,	Asia	21-10N.	72-27 E.
Syracuse,	Sicily Isle,	Italy,	Europe	36-58N.	5-05 E.
TAble Island,	New Hebrides,	South Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-38 S.	167-12 E.
Tanna,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-32 S.	169-46 E.
Tanjour,	Tanjour,	East India,	Asia	11-27N.	79-0 E.
Tauris,	Aderbeitzan,	Persia,	Asia	38-20N.	46 30 E.
Taoukaa Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	14-30 S.	145-04W.
Temontengis,	Soloo,	East India,	Asia	5-57N.	120-58 E.
Teneriffe Peak	Canaries,	Atlant. Ocean,	Africa	28-12N.	16-24W.
Tercera,	Azores,	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	38-45N.	27-01W.
St. Thomas's Isle,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18 21N.	64-26W.

Names of Places.	*Provinces.*	*Countries.*	*Quarter.*	*Lat.* D. M	*Long.* D. M.
Timor, SW. Point,		East India,	Asia	10 23 S.	124 04 E.
Timorland S. Point,		East India,	Asia	8 15 S.	131-57 E.
Thorn,	Regal Prussia,	Poland,	Europe	52-56N.	19 00W.
Tertuan,	Fez,	Barbary,	Africa	35-40N	5-18W.
Teflis,	Georgia,	Persia,	Asia	43-[illegible]0N	47 00 E.
Tobolski,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	58-12N.	68-17 E.
Tomsk,	Siberia,	Russia,	Asia	56-29N.	8[illegible]-04 E.
Toulon,	Provence,	France,	Europe	43 07N.	6 01 E.
Toledo,	New Castile,	Spain,	Europe	39-50N.	3-25 E.
Tonga Tabu Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	21-09 S.	174 41W.
Trapesond,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	41-50N.	40 30 E.
Trent,	Trent,	Germany,	Europe	46 05N.	11 02 E.
Troy Ruins,	Natolia,	Turkey,	Asia	39-30N.	26-30 E.
Tornea,	Bothnia,	Sweden,	Europe	65-50N.	24 17 E.
Tripoli,	Tripoli,	Barbary,	Africa	32-5[illegible]N.	13 12 E.
Tripoli,	Syria,	Turkey,	Asia	34-30N.	36-15 E.
Tunis,	Tunis,	Barbary,	Africa	36-47N.	10-00 E.
Turin,	Piedmont,	Italy,	Europe	45-05N.	7 45 E.
Tyre,	Palestine,	Turkey,	Asia	32-32N.	36 00 E.
Turtle Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	19-48 S.	178-02W.
Tyrnaw,	Trentschin,	Hungary,	Europe	48-23N.	17-38 E.
ULiatea,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	16-45 S.	151-26W.
Upsal,	Upland,	Sweden,	Europe	59-51N.	17-47 E.
Uranib[illegible],	Huen Isle,	Denmark,	Europe	55-54N.	12-57 E.
Ushant Isle,	Bretagne,	France,	Europe	48-28N.	4-59W.
Utrecht,	Holland,	Netherlands,	Europe	52 07N.	5-00 E.
Venice,	Venice,	Italy,	Europe	45-26N.	11-59 E.
Vera Cruz,	Mexico,	North	America	19-12N.	97-25W.
Verona,	Veronese,	Italy,	Europe	45-26N.	11-23 E.
Versailles,	Isle of France,	France,	Europe	48-48N.	2-12 E.
VIENNA (Ob.)	Austria,	Germany,	Europe	48-12N.	16-22 E.
Vigo,	Galicia,	Spain,	Europe	42-14N.	8-23W.
Vintimiglia,	Genoa,	Italy,	Europe	43-53N.	7-42 E.
Virgin Gorda,	Virgin Isles,	West India,	America	18-18N.	63-59W.
Wurtzburg,	Franconia,	Germany,	Europe	49-46N.	10-18 E.
Wakefield,	Yorkshire,	England,	Europe	53 41N.	1-28W.
Pr. of Wales Fort,	New N. Wales,	North	America	58 47N.	94-02W.
Wardhus,	Norwegian Lapland,	Lapland,	Europe	70-22N.	31-11 E.
Warsaw	Massovia,	Poland,	Europe	52 14N.	21-05 E.
Westman Isles,	North	Atlant. Ocean,	Europe	6[illegible]-20N.	20-22W.
Whitsuntide Isle,	South	Pacific Ocean,	Asia	15-44 S.	168-25 E.
Warwick,	Warwickshire,	England,	Europe	52 18N.	1-32W.
Waterford,	Munster,	Ireland,	Europe	52 12N.	7-16W.
Whitehaven,	Cumberland,	England,	Europe	54-38N.	3-36W.
Williamsburg,	Virginia,	North	America	37 12N.	76-48W.
Wells,	Somersetshire,	England,	Europe	51-12N.	2 40W.
Winchester,	Hampshire,	England,	Europe	51-06N.	1-15W.